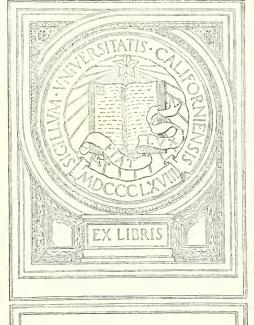
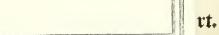


UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA LOS ANGELES

d.







# UNIVOR CALIFORNIA AT LOX ANGRES LIBRARY

# 





9. Devoto Inv: Jerraj Corpus, & Humor 9. Vandefuduk Aurarumg: loves anima calidig: Vapores Equibus hac rerum consistere Suma videtur Omnia nativo ac mortali Corpore Constant:

# S Y S T E M

# General Geography:

EXPLAINING

The Nature and Properties of the EARTH;

It's Figure, Magnitude, Motions, Situation, Contents, and Division into Land and Water, Mountains, Woods, Defarts, Lakes, Rivers, &c.

With particular Accounts of the different Appearances of the Heavens in different Countries; the Seasons of the Year over all the Globe; the Tides of the Sea; Bays, Capes, Islands, Rocks, Sand-Banks, and Shelves.

The State of the Atmosphere; the Nature of Exhalations; Winds, Storms, Tornados, &c.

The Origin of Springs Mineral-Waters, Burning Mountains, Mines, &c.

The Uses and Making of Maps, Globes, and Sea-Charts.

The Foundations of Dialling; the Art of Measuring Heights and Distances; the Art of Ship-Building, Navigation, and the Ways of Finding the Longitude At Sea.

# By BERNHARD VARENIUS, M. D.

Since Improved and Illustrated

By Sir Isaac Newton and Dr Jurin;

And now Translated into English; with additional Notes, Copper-Plates, an Alphabetical Index, and other Improvements.

Particularly useful to Students in the Universities; Travellers, Sailors, and all those who desire to be acquainted with Mixed Mathematics, Geography, Astronomy, and Navigation.

By Mr DUGDALE.

The whole Revised and Corrected by PETER SHAW, M. D.

The Third Edition, with large Additions.

#### In TWO VOLUMES.

LONDON: Printed for STEPHEN AUSTEN, at the Angel and Bible, in St Paul's Church-Yard. 1736.

HAVE perused this SYSTEM of GENERAL GEOGRAPHY; and I do recommend it as the most Useful Book upon this Subject.

JAMES HODGSON,

Christ-Hospital,
Dec. 14. 1732.

Master of the Royal Mathematical School; And Fellow of the Royal Society.



THE

# TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE.



HE Original of this Work was re-printed at Cambridge in the Year 1672, for the Use of the Students in that University; and an Advertisement was given of

it, the Beginning of the Year following, in the Philosophical Transactions (a).

THE Dutch Edition being then out of Print, was carefully corrected, in many,

91. Pag. 5172. BERN- quot, quæ desiderabantur, HARDI VARENII, M. D. Geographia Generalis; in qua Affectiones generales Telluris explicantur, fumma cura quam plurimis, in Locis emendata, & 33 Schematibus novis, are in-

(a) Phil. Transact. No. cisis, una cum Tabulis alieusta & illustraia: ab ISAACOŇEWTON Mathef. Professore Lucafiano apud Cantabrigienses. e Societate Regia. Cantab. 1672. in 8vo.

Places

uplicate Exchange

Places enlarged and improved, and the necessary Tables and Schemes supplied by the Illustrious Sir Isaac Newton, at that Time Lucasian Professor of Mathematics in that University.

THE Reason why this great Man took fo much Care in Correcting and Publishing our Author, was, because he thought him necessary to be read by his Audience, the Young Gentlemen of Cambridge, while he was delivering Lectures upon the same Subject from the Lucafian Chair. And tho' many Hundreds were then printed at Cambridge and from that Edition often reprinted abroad; yet by being frequently read in both Universities, all the Impressions were in Time fold off; fo that their Scarcity among the Bookfellers was observed by the Reverend Dr BENTLEY to be a great Detriment to the Young Gentlemen of Cambridge in perfecting their Studies (b).

WHERE-

(b) Appendix Jurin. Pag. 1. Cum frustra jam ubique fere quærerentur, apud Bibliopolas Vareni exemplaria, idque judicaret magno cum Juventutis Academicæ detrimento sieri Vir Reverendus, nec mihi nist summo cum Honore nominandus, RICHARDUS BENTLEIUS

jorem æquo pro lonitate sua & Humanitate opinionem conceperat, hortatus est ut novæ hujusce Editiones adornandæ curam susciperem. Simul monuit utile suturum ut quæ inventa, dimidii amplius seculi post Varenium spatio, satis multa suerant, ea, in Tyronum Gratiam, in Appendicem conferrem, breviturque explicarem. E-jus

WHEREUPON this worthy Encourager and Advancer of all Sorts of Literature, importuned the Learned Dr Jurin (as being the fittest Person) to take particular Care of a new Impression; and, for the Benefit of the younger Students, to supply the Desects of Varenius with an Appendix, containing the later Discoveries and Improvements.

TO Him therefore is owing that correct Edition of Varenius, with an excellent Appendix, printed in the Year 1712, and Dedicated to Dr Bentley: which is the Edition from whence the following Translation was made (c).

I beg leave to infift the more upon this because the Authority of our Author, back'd with three such Great and Learned Men, as Sir Isaac Newton, Dr Bentley, and Dr Jurin, will doubtless make an *English* Edition of this Work more acceptable to an *English* Reader.

jus ego auctoritati, tanti Viri, & cujus eram beneficiis ornatus maximis, non obtemperare omnino non potui, &c.

(c) Bernhardi Varenii Geographia Generalis, &c. adjecta est Appendix præcipua Recentiorum inventa, ad Geographiam spectantia, continens, a J A-COBO JURIN, A. M. Collegii S. Trinitatis Socio, & Scholæ publicæ Novocaftrensis Archididascalo. Cantabrigiæ 1712. in 8vo.

IT is therefore unnecessary to add any thing farther in Recommendation of the Author; or enter into an Encomium of the Work, since they have both of them so well recommended themselves to the Public already. All that remains is only to indicate what has been farther done in our present English Edition.

AND first, in the Geometrical Part, we have given Demonstrations to several Propositions, where they were wanting, and in a concise Manner explained several tedious Demonstrations; or at least have directed the Reader where he may find them ready demonstrated; so that we hope by this Means to incite the Studious to pursue the Mathematical Studies, by giving them certain Specimens of their Excellency.

- 2. IN the Astronomical Part, we have strengthened our Author's Arguments in Favour of the Copernican Hypothesis; and corrected or illustrated his Assertions and Propositions, by others taken from later Authors, or built upon more accurate Observations made since his Time.
- 3. IN the Philosophical and Physical Part, we have rejected the improbable Conjectures of the Antients, and the unwarrantable Suppositions of Des Cartes, which our Author seems to be fond of:

  Instead

Instead whereof, we have (with the learned Dr Jurin) introduced the Newtonian Philosophy to solve the Phænomena, as being much more eligible than the Cartesian, for the Agreeable and Geometrical Manner of it's Conclusions. Wherefore we have frequently made use of this New Philosophy, in the Way of Annotations upon our Author, where he has used that of Des Cartes.

4. IN the Geographical and Hydrographical Parts, there is often not the least Confonance or Similitude between the Latin and modern English Names of several Countries, Islands, Seas, Streights, &c. And very often their Names are changed by later Discoverers, and their Figures and Situations better discovered fince our Author's Time. Wherefore, in such Cases, we have taken the Liberty to alter their Names, Situations, and Descriptions, in order to make them conformable to our latest and best English Maps; deviating as little as possible from our Author's Sense; and making use of the same Words as 'tis likely he would have done, had he writ at the same Time, and in the same Language. We have done this to avoid, in fome Measure, Marginal Notes, which must necessarily have been inserted to have explained a strict Translation; but would have been neither entertaining nor instructive A 4

## viii The Translator's Preface.

ctive to an English Reader. These Alterations are included in Brackets, and for he most part distinguished by a different Character.

- 5. WE have translated Dr Jurin's Appendix, and added it to the several Passages of our Author, whereto each Part of it properly belongs.
- 6. WE have, as much as possible, endeavoured after our Author's singular Plainness of Expression, and perhaps in this may be thought to have imitated him to a Fault; but considering that we were not speaking to the Learned; but to those less skilled in Language; we thought it necessary to endeavour to make the Author understood, even by Persons of ordinary Capacities, rather than to render him abstruse and unintelligible by being too concise and curious in Words and Phrases.

TO conclude, we have endeavoured to give the English Reader an useful Edition of the Work, rather than one that was Elegant and Polite. And to this Purpose, we have added, what was never added before, an Alphabetical Index to the whole.



THE

# CONTENTS

Of the First Volume.

BOOK I.

The ABSOLUTE, or INDEPENDENT PART.

#### CHAP. I.

RELIMINARIES. 1. The Definition of Geography. 2. Division.

Page 1,

3. Subject.

4. Properties.

5. Principles.

6. Order.

7. Method of Proof.

8. Origin. 9. Excellency.

10. Division of the whole Work.

#### CHAP. II.

Preparatory Propositions from Geography and Page 15. Trigonometry.

1. Three kinds of Magnitude.

2, 3, 4, 5. Definitions of a right Line, Circle, Diameter, and Arc.

6. To

6. To erest a Perpendicular upon a given Line.

7. To divide a Circle and it's Periphery into four Quadrants.

8. To divide the Periphery of a Circle into 360 De-

grees.

9. To find the Contents of a Restangled-Triangle.

10. Having the Semi-diameter given, to find the Perriphery of a Circle.

11. Having the Periphery given to find the Diameter.

12. The Diameter of a Sphere being given, to find it's curve Surface, and Solidity, or solid Content.

13. Definitions of a Triangle, Sine, Tangent, and ma-

thematical Canon.

Two necessary Theorems.
 Four necessary Problems.

16. An Explanation of different Measures.

#### CHAP. IIJ.

Of the Figure of the Earth. Page 27

1. Various Opinions concerning the Figure of the Earth.
2. The Earth's Figure, the primary Property where-

on the rest depend.

3. The Arguments that prove it spherical.

4. taken from the Heavens.

taken from the Earth.

6. Objections answered.

5.

#### CHAP. IV.

Of the Mensuration and Magnitude of the Earth.

1. The Mensuration of the Earth requires a Knowledge of three Particulars; viz. Lines, Surface, and Solidity.

2. The different Authors who have attempted the

Mensuration of the Earth.

3. The Method of the Arabians.

4. Eratofthenes.

5. Posidonius. Snellius.

7. The first Terrestrial Method.

8. The second.
9. The third.

10. The Circumference of the Earth; it's Diameter, Surface, and Solid Content, in linear, square, and cubic Miles.

11. The Errors and Defects of the several preceding

Methods of measuring the Earth.

12. The Measure of the Parallels of the Earth.

#### CHAP. V.

Of the Motion of the Earth. Page 64

1. The Motion of the Earth the Cause of the Celestial Appearances, upon the Copernican Hypothesis.

2. A double Motion, besides the third, which is rather an Inclination of the Earth's Axis.

3. The Arguments for proving these Motions.

4. Objections answered.

5. The Velocity of this Motion in different Parts of the Earth.

#### CHAP. VI.

Of the Earth's Place in the System of the World.
Page 78

1. Common Opinion places the Earth in the Centre of the World.

2. The Situation of the Earth, and the Order of the Planets.

3. The Situation of the Earth upon the Copernican Hypothesis.

4. The Distance of the Earth from the Planets.

5. The Distance of the Earth from the fixed Stars.

CHAP.

#### CHAP. VII.

Of the Substance, internal Structure, and Compofition of the Earth. Page 87

1. To explain of what Substances the Earth is com-

posed.

- 2. The Earth divided into a confistent and fluid Part, and the Atmosphere; or into Earth, Water, and Air.
- 3. How the Earth and Water hold together, and constitute one Globe.

4. The Surface of the Earth continued, but not the Surface of the Waters.

5. How the Parts of the Earth are, from the Surface to the Center, is uncertain.

6. That Earth has it's Confishency and Coherence

from Salt.

- 7. Different kinds of Earth variously mixed in the Globe.
- 8. The Situation and Disposition of the Parts of the Earth different at different Times.

#### CHAP. VIII.

Of the Division of the Parts of the Earth into integrant Parts of the Sea. Page 103

1. Part of the Earth covered with Water, and

Part not.

- 2. The dry Parts separated from each other by the Waters between.
- 3. Four great Continents enumerated.

4. Ten great Islands enumerated.

5. Ten moderate Islands enumerated.

6. Ten small Islands enumerated.

7. The smallest Islands enumerated. 8. The Peninsulas, Isthmusses, and Capes, or Head-Lands.

9. Fourteen

9. Fourteen Peninsula's enumerated.

10. The more remarkable Istmusses enumerated.

#### CHAP. IX.

Of Mountains in general, and the Ways of taking their Altitude. Page 119

1. The Parts of the Earth are of different Al-

titudes.

2. To find the Height of a Mountain by Altimetry.

3. The Height of a Mountain being given, to find

it's Distance from a certain Place.

4. The Distance being given from whence the Top of a Mountain is first seen; to find it's Height.

5. The Height of a Mountain being known, to find the utmost Distance whereto it may be

seen.

S 6 4 2

6. The Sun's Height above the Horizon being given at any Time, and the Length of the Shadow of the Mountain at that Time, to find the Height of the Mountain.

7. The Height of Mountains bears no sensible Proportion to the Semidiameter of the Earth, or does

not binder the Sphericity of the Globe.

8. To explain the Origin of Mountains.
9. Why Rains and watery Meteors are frequent on the Tops of Mountains, whilf it is fair below.

10. Whether the Surface of a Mountain be more capacious than the Plain it stands on.

#### CHAP. X.

Of the Differences of Mountains. Page 135

1. Some Mountains are large, others small.

2. The more famous Mountains enumerated.

3. The Tops of Mountains in most Islands and Head-Lands reach to the middle Region of the Air.

4. To enumerate the Mountains remarkable for their

Height.

5. To enumerate the Burning Mountains.

6. To explain the Differences of Mountains.
7. Some Mountains are open, others close.

8. To enumerate the more famous Promontories.

9. Caves, deep Pits, &c. opposed to Mountains.

#### CHAP. XI.

Of Mines, Woods, and Defarts. Page 158

I. The Difference of Mines, and the more famous of them enumerated.

2. The Difference of Woods, and the more famous

enumerated.

3. The Difference of Defarts, and the more famous enumerated.

#### CHAP. XII.

Of the Division of the Ocean by the Interposition of the Land. Page 165

1. The Ocean surrounds the Earth in a continued

Extent.

2. The Parts of the Ocean are of three kinds, viz. Seas, Bays, and Streights.

3. The Ocean divided into four grand Parts, or

Oceans.

4. The Parts of the Ocean named.

5. The eminent Bays enumerated, with their Differences.

6. The Enumeration and Differences of Streights.

7. The Sea-Coasts traced over the four Quarters, and the Communication of the Parts of the Ocean.

#### CHAP. XIII.

Of certain Properties of the Ocean. Page 181

The Surface of the Ocean spherical.
 The Sea not higher than the Land.

3. Why the Sea seems to rise higher when viewed at a Distance from the Shore.

4. To explain the Origin of Bays and Streights.

5. Whether the Ocean be every where of the same Height.

6. The Depth of the Ocean may be found in many Places but not in all.

7. The Ocean has no proper Springs.

8. The Saltness of the Ocean from the Particles of Salt dissolved in it.

9. Whether Sea Water be sweeter at the Bottom.

10. The Sea grows falter towards the Equator, and the Seasons of it's being unequally salt.

11. Why the Rain is sweet on the Sea.

12. Different Sea Waters are heavier than each other, and than common Water.

13. Sea Water does not freeze so soon as River Water.

14. Why the Ocean becomes no larger by receiving fo many Rivers.

15. Different Parts of the Ocean have different Colours.

16. Certain Peculiarities in certain Parts of the Ocean.

17. Why the Sea appears luminous; or shines, by Night, especially when the Waves are violent.

18. The Ocean throws up terrestrial and consistent Bodies to the Shore.

#### CHAP. XIV.

Of the Motions of the Ocean, particular it's Flux and Reflux. Page 230

1. Water has only one natural Motion.

2. When

# xvi The CONTENTS.

2. When a Part of the Ocean moves, the whole is moved.

3. To observe the Point of the Compass wherein

- the Sea moves.

4. The Motion of the Sea is either direct, vortical, concussory, or tremulous.

5. Some Motions of the Sea are general, some

particular, and the rest contingent.

6. The Wind causes the contingent Motion of the Sea.

7. The general Motion, of the Ocean double, viz. continued, and ebbing and flowing.

8. Winds often alter the general Motions of the Ocean.

9. The Cause of the general Motion uncertain.

10. What the Motion of the Flux and Reflux is.

11. The Cause of that Motion.

12. Why at new and full Moon the general Motion of the Sea is more violent; and also the Swell larger.

13. Why on the Days of the Equinoxes the general

Motion and Swell of the Sea is greater.

14. A great Flux and Reflux on some Shores, and on others scarce sensible.

15. The Flux of the Sea violent, the Reflux natural.

16. The Flux largest in those Places where the Moon is vertical.

17. The Quantity of the Flux not constant.

18. The Time of the beginning and ending of the Flux

different in different Places.

19. In most Places the Sea flows to the Shore six Hours, and ebbs as many; but in some Places it flows longer than it ebbs; and vice versa.

20. Whether the Flood begins when the Moon touches

the Horizon:

21. The Hour being given, wherein the Flood is at it's greatest Height in any Place, on the Day of new Moon, to find the Hour of it's greatest Height for the following Days:

22 The

The CONTENTS. xvii

22. The Winds prolong and shorten the Duration of the Flux and Reflux.

23. A great Diversity in the particular Motion of

the Sea.

24. The first particular perpetual Motion.

25. The second -

26. The third -

27. The fourth -

28. The fifth ----

29. The fixth -30. The seventh -

31. The particular periodical Motions enumerated.

32. Two kinds of Vortices in the Sea.

33. The Cause of the Tremor in the Sea, with

Examples.

34. Why the Pacific Ocean is so calm in fair Weather, but easily moved with gentle Winds.

#### CHAP. XV.

Of Lakes, Moors, and Bogs. Page 280

I. Lakes, Moors, and Bogs defined.

2. Four kinds of Lakes.

- 3. To explain the Origin of those Lakes that neither receive nor send out Rivers; and to enumerate them.
- 4. To explain the Origin of those that send out Rivers, but receive none.
- 5. To explain the Origin of those that receive Rivers, but send none out.
- 6. To explain the Origin of those that both receive and send out Rivers.
- 7. Most Lakes contain a fresh but some a salt Water.
- 8. Whether the Caspian Sea be a Lake or a Bay.

9. Whether the Euxine be a Lake or a Bay.

10. The Lakes enumerated that have Islands in the middle.

2

### xviii The CONTENTS.

11. To make a Lake in a Place assigned; if the thing be possible.

12. To dry or drain a Lake.

13. Bogs of two kinds.

14. Bogs contain a sulphureous Earth.

15. To dry a Bog.

#### CHAP. XVI.

Of Rivers in general. Page 295 1. The Definition of Rivers, Rivulets, and Springs, &c.

2. Torrents and Rivers sometimes produced by violent Rains, and melted Snow.

3. Most Rivulets rise from Springs, and Rivers from

a Conflux of Rivulets.

4. Rivers enlarged by Rains and melted Snow at different Times of the Year.

5. The Causes of Springs, or the Origin of Spring Water.

6. Some Rivers dip under Ground, and rife again.
7. Rivers disembogue into the Sea, or Lakes.

9 Fran Rivers hacome Against

8. Few Rivers become stagnant.

9. Whether the Chanels, and Windings of Rivers were made by Nature or human Industry.

10. Chanels, the nearer to the Spring-Head the higher; and the nearer to the River's mouth the deeper.

11. Of Cataracts.

12. Why Rivers are broader in one Part than another.

13. The Chanels of Rivers fink more or less in one Part than another.

14. Why some Rivers are rapid, others gentle; and why the same River is more rapid in one Place than another.

15. Some few Rivers run a direct Course; but most a winding one, to their Exits.

16. The Lakes thro' which certain Rivers have their course.

17. Most Rivers the nearer their Mouths the wider they become.

18. The

18. The Water of Rivers contains many Particles of different Metals, Minerals, Sands, oleaginous and other Substances; as also certain subtile Spirits of Vitriol, Salt, Sulphur, &c.

19. The Rivers that have Gold Sand enumerated.

20. The Waters of most Rivers differ in Colour, Gravity, and other Qualities.

21. Certain Rivers are so enlarged, at stated Times,

as to overflow their Banks.

22. To enumerate these Rivers, and their Causes.

23. To explain the Origin and Rife of Springs.

24. To find whether a Spring, or Well, may be made in a Place assigned.

25. To make a Well in a given Spot; if the Thing be

possible.

26. To make an apparent Spring in a Place assigned;

if the Thing be possible.

27. To bring a River from a Spring, or from another River, to a given Place, if the Thing be possible.

28. The Art of Levelling, or taking the Fall of Water, &c.

29. The great Rivers of a long Course enumerated. 30. Certain Rivers have Whirlpools and Swallows.

31. River-Water lighter than Sea-Water.

#### CHAP. XVII.

# Of Mineral-Waters, Hot-Springs, &c. Page 359

1. No Water found pure and elementary.

2. Mineral Waters defined.

3. Three general Kinds of Mineral Waters. 4. To explain the Origin of Mineral Waters.

5. That the particular Species of Mineral Waters are infinite.

6. To enumerate the more remarkable and extraordinary Differences of Waters.

7. Of the Acidulæ, or tart Waters.

8. Of Hot Springs.

9. Of oily and unEtuous Waters.

10. Of bitter Waters.

11. Of extreamly cold Springs.

12. Of such Waters as transmute or alter Substances.

13. Of poisonous and Mortal Waters.

14. Of coloured Waters.

15. Of Salt-IVaters.

16. Of bubbling, or boiling, Springs, and fuch as break forth with a violent Spirit.

17. Springs that run only at stated Times.

#### CHAP. XVIII.

Of the Change, and Origin of dry Parts and watery, on the Earth. Pag 395

1. To examine the extant Surface of the Earth, and

that covered with Water.

2. The Surface of the Land and Water not perpetually the same.

3. To compute how much Earth, and how much

Water the Globe contains.

4. Waters for fake the Shores, and leave them dry on many Accounts; and first, as in Meers and Bogs.

5. Rivers for sake their Banks and Chanels, and af-

ford new Land.

6. Lakes are dried up, and changed to Land.

7. Streights are dried up.

8. Bays are dried up.

9. Parts of the Ocean are dried up.

10. To explain the Origin of Sand-Banks.

s1. Whether Sand-Banks may become a part of the neighbouring Continent.

12. Islands are formed several Ways.

13. The more extraordinary Ways wherein Islands are formed.

14. Of Floating Islands.

15. Rivers change their Chanels many Ways, or run over new Trasts of Land.

16 1 ikes

16. Likes, Meers, and Bogs posses Spaces of Land they did not occupy before.

17. The Ocean possesses new Tracts of Land, where it

did not appear before.

18. Whether the entire Surface of the Earth may be folely possessed by Water alone, or Land alone.

19. Why there are few Islands in the middle of the Ocean; but many Shoals of them near Continents

or larger Islands.

20. Why Lands prove fertile or barren; and why on the Sea-Shore the kind of Earth alters that covers the Fields.

#### CHAP. XIX.

Of the Air and Atmosphere. Page 419

1. Exhalations continually rise from the Parts of the Earth.

2. The State of the Atmosphere.

3. Exhalations are thicker or thinner at different Times, and in different Places.

4. Various Kinds of Exhalations.

5. The Particles of the Air reflect the Sun's Rays, like a Speculum.

6. The upper Parts of the Atmosphere are more

rarified than the lower.

7. Exhalations are driven upwards by a violent Motion; their natural Tendency is downwards.

8. The Atmosphere when warmed possesses a larger Space, and when cold a less.

9. To make a Thermometer, or Weather-Glass.

10. How, or to what Degree, the Air may be rarified.

11. Why the Air is generally thick and cloudy in the Frigid Zone.

12. Why the Air is thin and clear in violently frosty Weather.

13. Why the Air appears thicker at the Horizon.

14. Whether the Air, or Atmosphere, be of the same Height in all Places.

15. The

15. The Condensation and Rarifaction of the Air does not alter it's Height.

16. The Height of the Air the same at all Times, and

in all Places.

17. The Air more condensed in the Winter, and at Night, than in the Summer, and by Day.

18. The different Density of the Air in different Places. 19. The middle Region of the Air nearer the Earth

in Places contiguous to the Pole.

20. In Places adjacent to the Pole the hot Region of the Air, or the beginning of the upper Region, is more remote.

21. The Rays of the Sun, Moon, and Stars, are re-

fracted in the Air.

22. On Account of this Refraction the Sun and Moon appear to rife sooner than they ought.

23. The thicker the Air, the greater the Refraction.

24. The thicker the Air, the sooner the Sun and Moon appear to rise.

25. The lower the Air that causes the Refraction, the

sooner the Stars appear to rise.

26. The Refraction of a Starmay be the same in the same Situation, the the Height of the Air be different.

27. If the Air be thicker, or lower, in one Place than in another, the Sun or Moon will appear sooner in the sormer than in the latter.

28. If the Air be thicker and higher in one Place than another, the Stars will accordingly be seen to rise

sooner, or later.

29. Two Refractions being taken at two Altitudes, to find from whence both the Height and Thickness of the Air, with Respect to the Æther, or the Law of Refraction.

30. To find the least possible Height of the Atmosphere.

31. To find the Law of Refraction.

32. To find the Refraction at any Inclination.

33. To find the Refraction at the given Height of a Star.

34. The Light of the Stars, particularly the Sun and Moon, are reflected by the Particles of Air.

3 35. This

35. This Reflection is the principal Cause of the Twilight.

36. When the Twilight begins.

37. The Height of the Air not to be found from the Quantity of the Twilight.

38. The Height of the Air, upon a Supposition that a double Reflection is the Cause of the Twilight.

39. The Height of the Air being given, to compute it's

Quantity.

40. The Air has certain Peculiarities, in certain Places.

#### CHAP. XX.

Of the Motion of the Air, Winds in general, and the Points of the Compass. Page 477

1. Winds defined.

2. Most Winds blow from one Point to the opposite.

3. Points of the Compass defined.

4. The Number of Points and Winds. 5. Two and thirty Points and Winds.

6. A more accurate Enumeration of the Points and Winds.

7. The Winds according to the Antients enumerated.

8. Another Enumeration of the Winds.

9. Opposite Winds.

10. Various Causes of Winds.

11. Why Winds may blow perpendicularly to the Horizon of a Place.

12. Why the Winds blow not in continued, but inter-

rupted Blasts.

13. Why Winds very feldom blow perpendicularly upon a Place from above, but generally oblique.

14. Why the South and West Winds are warm.

15. Why the West Winds blow seldomer than the East. 16. Why the North and East Winds are stronger, and

the South and West Winds weaker.

17. Why a small, thick, and blackish Cloud foretels Wind from that Quarter.

18. Why Winds are frequent in the Spring and Autumn.

#### xxiv The CONTENTS.

19. At what Height, or in what Region of the Air, the Winds blow.

20. To what Distance one and the same Wind may reach.

#### CHAP. XXI.

# Of particular Winds, and Storms or Tempests. Page 491

I. Some Winds are constant, others not.

2. Some Winds are general, others particular.

3. The Cause of the general Winds.

4. Some Winds periodical and stated; others uncertain and contingent.

5. The periodical Winds enumerated.
6. The Cause of the Etesian Winds.

7. Why the Etesian are not found in many Places.

8. Some Winds peculiar, others common.

9. Certain Winds periodical at certain Hours.

10. Northern Winds most frequent in Places near the North Pole.

11. Four Species of Winds.

12. Certain impetuous and sudden Winds.

13. Their Kinds exemplified. 14. Tornados, or Travados.

15. Cataracts, or Exhydrias.

16. Ecnephias, or lesser Exhydrias.

17. Typhon, or Oranchan.

18. Whether certain Winds burst out of the Earth, or rise from the Water.

19. Whether a certain Wind may rife from the Flood of the Sea and Rivers.

20. The Causes of the Brothers at Sea, or Castor, Pollux, and Helena, in Tempests.

Ocean, under the Equator; especially on the Guinea Coast.

22. Storms and Tempests anniversary in certain Places.



THE

# ABSOLUTE PART

OF

# Universal Geography.

462 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304 463 304

# SECT. I. PRELIMINARIES.

CHAP. I.

Of the Definition, Division, Method, &c. of GEOGRAPHY.



T hath been an antient Custom for those that fully treat of any Art, or Science, to premise somewhat of it's Origin, Nature, Constitution, &c. And this Procedure is not improper, provided it be clear of all fophistical Equivocation; be-

cause from such Preliminaries the Reader may conceive an Idea of the Work, or at least the Substance thereof, and so proceed more advisedly therein. We shall therefore here offer a few Particulars as to the Nature, Use, and Design of Geography.

VOL. I. B

## The Definition of Geography.

GEOGRAPHY is that part of mixed Mathematics, which explains the State of the Earth, and of it's Parts, depending on Quantity, viz. it's Figure, Place, Magnitude, and Motion, with the

Celestial Appearances, &c.

BY fome it is taken in too limited a Sense, for a bare Description of the several Countries; and by others too extensively, who along with such a Description would have their Political Constitution. But the Authors who proceed thus are excusable, because they do it only to excite and delight the Reader, who might otherwise be the less attentive to a bare Enumeration and Description of the Countries, without some Knowledge of the Manners, and Customs of the Inhabitants.

## The Division of Geography.

W E divide Geography into General and Special, or Universal and Particular. Golnitzius says, Geography is to be explained externally and internally; but these Terms are improper, and ill chosen, Universal and Particular being much more pertinent. We call that Universal Geography which considers the whole Earth in general, and explains it's Properties without regard to particular Countries: But Special or Particular Geography describes the Constitution and Situation of each single Country by itself which is twofold, viz. Chorographical, which describes Countries of a considerable Extent; or Topographical, which gives a View of some place or small Tract of the Earth.

I N this Book, we shall exhibit Universal Geography, which may be divided into three Parts, Absolute, Relative, and Comparative. In the Absolute

Part

Part we shall handle what respects the Body of the Earth itself, it's Parts and peculiar Properties; as it's Figure, Magnitude, and Motion; it's Lands, Seas, and Rivers, &c. In the Relative Part we shall account for the Appearances and Accidents that happen to it from Celestial Causes: and, lastly, the Comparative Part shall contain an Explication of those Properties, which arise from comparing different Parts of the Earth together (a).

# The Subject of Geography.

THE Object, or Subject, of Geography is the Earth; especially it's Superficies and exterior Parts.

## The Properties of Geography.

THE Things which feem to be most worthy of Observation in every Country are of three kinds, viz. Celestial, Terrestrial, and Human. The Celestial Properties are such as affect us by reason of the apparent Motion of the Sun, and Stars. These are eight in Number: 1. The Elevation of the Pole, or the Distance of a Place from the Equator. 2. The Obliquity of the Diurnal Motion of the Stars above the Horizon of that Place. 3. The Time of the longest and shortest

(a) The Honour of reducing Geography to Art and System was reserved to Ptolemy; who by adding Mathematical Advantages to the Historical Method, in which it had been treated of before, has described the World in a much more Intelligible Manner: he has delineated it under more certain Rules, and by fixing the Bounds of Places, from Longitude and Latitude, hath both discovered others

Mistakes, and hath left us a Method of discovering his own.

There is one thing yet very lame in our Geography, the fixing the true Longitude of Places; and tho' feveral new Ways have been lately tried, to redress this Inconvenience, both from exact Pendulums, and from Observations upon the Immerfions and Emersions of Jupiter's Satellites, yet they have not altogether proved effectual.

B 2

Day. 4. The Climate and Zone. 5. Heat, Cold, and the Seasons of the Year; with Rain, Snow, Wind, and other Meteors: and tho' these may seem Terrestrial Properties, yet because they chiefly depend upon the Motion of the Sun, and the four Seafons of the Year, we have reckoned them among the Celestial Matters. 6. The Rifing, Appearance, and Continuance, of the Stars above the Horizon. 7. The Stars that pass thro' the Zenith of a Place. 8. The Celerity of the Motion with which, according to the Copernican Hypothesis, every place constantly revolves. And according to Astrologers a ninth Property may be added; for they affign fome Country or other to every one of the twelve Signs of the Zodiac, and the Planets which are Lords of these Signs; but fuch imaginary Qualities feem superstitious and vain to me; nor do I perceive any reasonable Foundation for them (a). Thus far the Celestial Properties.

WE call those Terrestrial Properties that are obferved in the Face of every Country; which are ten in Number. 1. The Limits and Bounds of each Country. 2. It's Figure. 3. It's Magnitude. 4. It's Mountains. 5. It's Waters, viz. Springs, Rivers, and Bays. 6. It's Woods and Defarts. 7. The Fruitfulness and Barrenness of the Country, with it's various kinds of Fruits. S. The Minerals and Fossils. 9. The living Creatures there. 10. The Longitude of the Place: which might be comprehended under the

first of these Properties.

(a) Tho' this Art be of great Antiquity, it is rejected and exploded by most knowing People of this Age; and only Impostors, or some weak Pretenders to Learning, now pra-Etife it, in these Parts of the World. It is however, even

to this Day, venerated in most Eastern Countries, especially among the Indians; where nothing is done of any Confequence, before the Aftrologer determines a fortunate Hour to undertake it. See Rohault's Physics Part 2. Chap. 27.

THE third kind of Observations to be made in every Country, we call Human, because they chiefly respect the Inhabitants of the Place; and these are also ten in Number. 1. Their Stature, Shape, Colour, and the length of their Lives; their Origin, Meat, and Drink. 2. Their Arts, and the Profits which arise from them; with the Merchandise and Wares they barter with one another. 3. Their Virtues and Vices, Learning, Capacities, and Schools. 4. Their Ceremonies at Births, Marriages, and Funerals. 5. The Language which the Inhabitants use. 6. Their Political Government. 7. Their Religion and Church Government. 8. Their Cities and famous Places. 9. Their remarkable Histories. 10. Their famous Men, Artificers, and the Inventions, of the Natives.

THESE are the three kinds of Occurrences to be explained in *Special Geography*; and tho' the last Sort seem not so properly to belong to this Science, yet we are obliged to admit them for Custom sake,

and the Information of the Reader.

IN Univerfal Geography (which is the Subject of this Book) the absolute Division of the Earth, and the Constitution of it's Parts, will first be examined; then the Celestial Phænomena, in general, that are to be applied to their respective Countries, in Special Geography; and lastly, there will follow in the Comparative Part such Considerations as occur from comparing the Phænomena of one Place with another.

## The Principles of Geography.

THE Principles from which Arguments are drawn for proving Propositions in Geography are of three forts. 1. Geometrical, Arithmetical, and Trigonometrical Propositions. 2. Astronomical Precepts and Theorems (tho' it may seem strange

W

we should have Recourse to the Celestial Bodies, which are distant from us so many Millions of Miles, for understanding the Nature of the Earth we inhabit). 3. Experience; because the greatest Part of Geography, and chiefly the Special, is founded only upon the Experience and Observations of those who have described the several Countries.

### The Order of Geography.

THE Order we have thought most convenient to follow in General Geography, is already mentioned in the Division and Explication of it's Properties; yet there remains a Doubt as to the Order to be observed in explaining these Properties: viz. whether we should apply them to their relative Countries in which they are found, or refer the Countries themselves to the Properties accounted for, in general. Aristotle, in his first Book of Animals, moves the same Doubt; and argues at large, whether the Properties should be adjusted to the general Account of Animals, or the Animals ranked under the Account of their Properties. The like Difficulty occurs in other Parts of Philosophy. However we shall here first explain some general Properties; and after apply them to their respective Countries.

## The Proof of Geography.

IN proving Geographical Propositions we are to observe; that several Properties, and chiefly the Celestial, are confirmed by proper Demonstrations: But in Special Geography (excepting the Celeftials) almost every Thing is explained without Demonstration; being either grounded on Experience and Observation, or on the Testimony of

our Senses: nor can they be proved by any other Means. For Science is taken either for that Knowledge which is founded on things highly probable; or for a certain Knowledge of Things which is gained by the force of Argument, or the Testimony of Sense; or for that Knowledge which arifes from Demonstration in a strict Sense, such as is found in Geometry, Arithmetic, and other Mathematical Sciences; excepting Chronology and Geography; to both which the Name of Science, taken in the fecond Sense, doth most properly be-

THERE are also several Propositions proved, or rather exposed to view, by the artificial Terrestrial Globe, or by Geographical Maps; most of which might be confirmed by a strict Demonstration; tho' omitted on Account of the Incapacity of fome Readers. Other Propositions cannot be fo well proved, yet are received as apparent Truths. Thus tho' we suppose all Places on the Globe, and in Maps, to be laid down in the same Order as they really are on Earth; nevertheless in these Matters we rather follow the Descriptions that are given by Geographical Authors. Globes and Maps, indeed, made from fuch Observations, serve well enough for Illustration, and the more easy Comprehension of the Thing.

# The Origin of Geography.

THE Origin of Geography is not of late Date, nor was it brought into the World as it were at one Birth; neither was it invented by one Man: but it's Foundations were laid many Ages ago. It is true, indeed, the old Geographers were employed only in describing particular Countries, either in whole, or in part. The Romans, when they had overcome and fubdued any Province, used to expole

B 4

that

pose the Chorography thereof to the Spectators in their Triumphs delineated upon a Table, and flourished round with Pictures. There were also at Rome, in the Portico of Lucullus, several Geographical Tables exposed to public View. The Senate of Rome, about one hundred Years before the Birth of CHRIST, fent Geographers and Surveyors into the feveral parts of the Earth, that they might measure the whole; tho' they scarce visited a twentieth Part of it. Neco, also, King of Egypt, many Ages before Christ, commanded that the Extremities of Africa should be diligently searched into; which was performed by the *Phanicians* in the space of three Years. Darius commanded that the Mouths of the River Indus, and the whole Æthiotic Sea, to the eastward, should be diligently examined into. Alexander the Great, as Pliny tells us, in his Afiatic Expedition, carried along with him two Geographers, Diogenes and Beto, to measure and delineate to him his Journies; from whose Journals and Observations the Geographers of fucceeding Ages borrowed many Things. And tho' the study of all other Arts was almost abolished by the Wars, Geography and Fortification were improved thereby.

NEVERTHELESS the Geography of the Antients was very imperfect, and commonly full of false Relations; because they knew little or nothing of those Places of the Earth which are of most Consequence to be known; or at least they had no certain Experience about them. For, 1. all America was entirely unknown to them. 2. So were the remotest Northern Countries. 3. The South Continent and the Country of Magellan. 4. They knew not that the World could be failed round, or that the Earth was furrounded by the Ocean, in an uninterrupted Continuity: Some indeed of the Antients I confess were of this Opinion, but I deny they had any Certainty of it. 5. They knew not

that the Torrid Zone was inhabited, by an almost infinite number of People. 6. They were ignorant of the true Measure of the Earth, tho' they writ a great deal on that subject. 7. They did not think that Africa could be failed round (b), because the South Parts thereof were unknown to them. 8. Both the Greeks and Romans wanted true Descriptions of the Countries remote from them, and have left us a great many forged and fabulous Stories, concerning the People that live in the Borders of Asia, and those that inhabit the Northern parts of the Earth (c). 9. They were ignorant of the general Motion of the Sea, and the Difference of Currents in particular Places. 10. The Grecians, even Aristotle himself, did not know the Reason of the Ebbing and Flowing of the Sea. 11. Few of them understood the Variation of the Winds; and the

(b) It is likely the antient Egyptians had some Knowledge of the extream Parts of Africa, as appears from what Herodotus relates, viz. "That Neco, King sof Egypt, (2200 Years ago) having furnished certain Phæsicians with Ships; these setting Sail forthe Red-Sea, and coasting along Africa, doubseled the Cape of Good Hope; and after two Years spent in the Vovage entered the Streights of Gibraltar, in the third. Herod. Lib. 4.

(c) C. Plinii Nat. Hist. Lib. 5. Chap. 8. Blemmyis traduntur capita abesse, ore & oculis pestori affixis. The Blemmai are said to be without Heads, having their Mouths and Eyes fixed in their Breasts. Ibid. Lib. 7. Cap. 2. Arimaspi uno ocuio in fronte media insignes: quibus assidue bellum esse circa metalla cum Gryphis.

Et alibi, cauda villosa homines nasci pernicitatis eximiæ. The Arimaspi are famous for having only one Eye fixed in the middle of their Foreheads, between whom and the Griffons there is a continual War carried on about their Metals. In another Place there are a fort of grinning Apith People, born with long hairy Tails, and very fwift of Foot. From which Romantic stories of Pliny, Sir 7. Mandeville took his lying Reports, of his meeting (in his Travels,) with thefe very People, and alfo fome, in the Torrid Zone, that to guard themselves against the fcorching Heat of the Sun, had one of their Feet so large, that by lying on their backs, and holding it up against the Sun, would screen them against it's immoderate Heat; with other the like whimfical Relations.

Periodical,

Periodical, or Trade-Winds, were never dreamt of by them. 12. The noble Property of the Load-Stone, which shews the North and South, was unknown to them; tho' they knew it's Virtue of attracting Iron. And Anaximander, who lived about 400 Years before Christ, was the first that attemp. ted to give the Dimensions of the Earth (a).

# The Excellency of Geography.

THERE are three Things that recommend the Study of Geography. 1. It's Dignity; and in that it greatly adorns Man, the Inhabitant of the Earth endowed with Reason above all other Animals, to understand the Nature of Countries, and the Constitution of the Earth. 2. It is as well a pleafant, as an innocent Recreation. 3. There is an abfolute necessity for the Knowledge of it; because neither Divines, Physicians, Lawyers, Historians, nor other Men of Letters, can well proceed in their Studies, without interruption, unless they have some Knowledge of Geography; as it hath been observed by others, and illustrated by feveral Examples.

HERE follow two Tables, whereof the first. may ferve for the Contents of this Book; which

(a) The Moderns have detested many Errors of the Antients, and very much improved Geography, by opening a Paffage to a New World, and by discovering that those Parts of the Old which were thought uninhabitable, to be inhabited; the Torrid Zone is known to be temperate, by refreshing Showers and constant Breezes, and cold Nights; and the Globe itself has been compassed by several, both English and Foreign Sailors. But there yet remains

much of the Globe undiscovered. There is a vast Southern Continent, as yet fcarce looked into. The northern parts of America, are yet undiscovered. Africa, tho' it hath been compassed round and round from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea, yet little more than it's Coasts are throughly known, except Egypt and Abassia. It's inland parts have been either not sufficiently viewed or imperfectly described.

contains Universal Geography: the other shews the Order that ought to be observed by those that treat of Special Geography.

W E divide Universal Geography into three Parts, viz.

I. THE ABSOLUTE PART, fubdivided into fix Sections, whereof

SECTION I. contains two Chapters of PRELIMINARIES.

Chap. I. The Introduction or Preface.
Chap. II. Some Geometrical Propositions of use in the Work.

SECT. II. In which the Nature of the Earth is explained, in five Chapters.

Chap. III. Of the Figure of the Earth.
Chap. IV. Of it's Measure and Magnitude.
Chap. V. Of it's Motion.
Chap. VI. Of it's Situation in the System of the
World.

( Chap. VII. Of it's Substance and Matter.

SECT. III. In which the Constitution of the Earth and it's Parts are explained, in four Chapters.

Chap. VIII. Of the Division of the Earth by Water.

Chap. IX. Of Mountains in general.

Chap. X. Of the Differences of Mountains.

Chap. XI. Of Woods, Defarts, and Mines.

12 SECT. IV. Of Hydrography, in which the Constitution of the Waters, and their Properties are explained, in fix Chapters.

[ Chap. XII. Of the Division of the Waters by the Earth.

Chap. XIII. Of the Ocean and Sea.
Chap. XIV. Of the Motion of the Sea, viz. it's Flux and Reflux.

Chap. XVI. Of Lakes, Meres, and Moraffes.
Chap. XVII. Of Rivers.
Chap. XVII. Of Mineral Waters

Chap. XVII. Of Mineral Waters.

SECT. V.

Schap. XVIII. Of the extraordinary Changes of the Sea into Land, and dry Places into watery.

SECT. VI. Of the Atmosphere.

Chap. XIX. Of the Atmosphere and Air. Chap. XX. Of Winds in general. Chap. XXI. Of the different forts of Winds.

11. THE RELATIVE PART explains the Celestial Properties, in nine Chapters.

Chap. XXII. Of the Celestial Properties in general.

Chap, XXIII. Of the Latitude of the Place, or the Elevation of the Pole.

Chap. XXIV. Of the Division of the Earth into Zones.

Chap. XXV. Of the Length of Days, and the Division of the Earth into Climates.

Chap.

Chap. XXVI. Of Light, Heat, and the Seasons of the Year.

Chap. XXVII. Of Shadows, and how the Inhabitants are divided according to them.

Chap. XXVIII. Of comparing the Celestial Phænomena, in different Places. Of the Antaci, Periaci and Antipodes.

Chap. XXIX. Of the Difference of Time in dif-

ferent Places.

Chap. XXX. Of the different Rifing of the Sun and Moon, and other Phænomena.

III. THE COMPARATIVE PART confiders the Particulars arising from comparing the Phænomena of one Place, with those of another.

Chap. XXXI. Of the Longitude of Places. Chap. XXXII. Of the Situation of Places in re-

spect of one another.

Chap. XXXIII. Of the Diffances of Places.

Chap. XXXIV. Of the Vifible Horizon. Chap. XXXV. Of Navigation, in general, and Ship-Building.

Chap, XXXVI. Of Lading and Ballasting of Ships.

Chap. XXXVII. The Nautical Directory, Part 1. Of Diftances.

Chap. XXXVIII. Part 2. Of the Points of the Compass.

Chap. XXXIX. Part 3. Of a Ship's Course. Chap. XL. Part 4. Of the Ship's Place in her

Voyage.

Special Geography exhibits three kinds of Particulars. Ten of them are Terrestrial.

- 1. The Limits and Bounds of the Country.
- 2. The Longitude and Situation of Places.

3. The Figure of the Country.

4. It's Magnitude.

5. It's Mountains; their Names, Situations, Altitudes, Properties, and Things contained in them.

6. It's Mines.

7. It's Woods and Defarts.

8. It's Waters; as Seas, Rivers, Lakes, Marshes, Springs; their Rife, their Origin, and Breadth; the Quantity, Quality, and Celerity of their Waters, with their Cataracts.

9. The Fertility, Barrenness, and Fruits, of the

Country.

10. It's living Creatures.

The Celestial Properties are eight.

- 1. The Distance of the Place from the Equator and Pole.
- 2. The Obliquity of the Motion of the Stars above the Horizon.
- 3. The Length of the Days and Nights.4. The Climate and Zone.

- 5. The Heat and Seafons: Wind, Rain, and other Meteors.
- 6. The Rifing and Continuance of the Stars above the Horizon.
- 7. The Stars that pass thro' the Zenith of the
- 8. The Celerity with which each Place revolves, according to the Copernican System.

#### THE Human Particulars are ten.

I. The Stature of the Inhabitants; their Meat, Drink, and Origin.

2. Their Arts, Profits, Commodities, and

Trade.

3. Their Virtues and Vices; their Capacities and Learning.

4. Their Ceremonies at Births, Marriages, and

Funerals.

5. Their Speech and Language.6. Their Political Government.

7. Their Religion and Church Government.

8. Their Cities.

- 9. Their memorable Histories.
- 10. Their famous Men and Women, Artificers, and Inventions.



#### CHAP. II.

Some Propositions in Geometry and Trigonometry, of use in Geography.

LATO very justly called Geometry and Arith-I metic the two Wings whereby the Minds of Men might mount up to Heaven; that is, in fearching after the Motions and Properties of the Celestial Bodies. These Sciences are no less useful in Geograpby; if we defire to understand it's sublime and intricate Parts, without any Hinderance. It is true, a less share of Mathematics will serve for Geography than Astronomy: but because several are taken with

the Study of Geography, who do not understand these Sciences, we shall here set down a few Propofitions from them, fuch as we think most necessary; that the Reader may proceed the more readily without Interruption in his Study. Tho', by the way, we do not at all encourage that bad Custom some young Gentlemen have got, in applying themselves unadvisedly to other Parts of Philosophy, before they have a competent Knowledge in Arithmetic and Geometry. The Fault is very often in their Masters and Tutors, who are for the most Part ignorant of these Things themselves, and therefore cannot admonish Youth to shun so pernicious a Custom. In Arithmetic we suppose the Reader to know the four common Rules of Numeration, viz. Addition, Substraction, Multiplication, and Division, with the Golden Rule, or Rule of Three; and therefore shall not treat of them here. If any one underftand them not, he may learn them much better from fome able Teacher, than from Books.

1. BUT as to Geometry, it treats of three forts of Magnitudes by which every thing is meafured; viz. Lines, Superficies, and Solids: neither can there be found in Nature a Body of any other

Dimension.

2. A LINE is either straight or curved; and a Curve again is either uniform as circular, or diffimilar and variable, as the Ellipse, the Conchoid,

and Spiral Line.

3. A CIRCLE is a Space or plain Superficies bounded with a curve Line, wherein there is a Point from which all right Lines drawn to the Curve are equal. The curve Line which bounds that Space is called the Circumference, or Periphery, of the Circle; and the middle Point is called the Center (a).

<sup>(</sup>a) Euclid, Lib. 1. Def. 15, 16.

4. THE Diameter of a Circle is a right Line drawn thro' the Center, and terminated at both ends by the Periphery: one half of which is called

the Semidiameter, or Radius (a).

5. A N Arch is part of the Periphery of a Circle. A Quadrant is a fourth Part of the whole Periphery. What an Arch wants of a Quadrant is called the Complement of that Arch: and it's Difference from a Semicircle it called it's Supplement (b).

#### PROBLEM.

6. HAVING a right Line given, and a Point, either in or out of it, to draw thro' that Point a Line perpendicular to the former.

LET the Line given (Fig. 2.) be AB, and the Point C: open the Compasses so, that setting one Foot in C, you may with the other cut the Line given in df; then one Foot being placed at d, with the other describe an Arch, as gh; also make f the Center, and with the same Radius describe another Arch, which will cut the former in g and h; so draw the Line gh; which will be the Perpendicular required.

7. To divide a Circle and it's Periphery into four equal Parts. Draw a Diameter, and from the Center raise to it a Perpendicular, which prolonged will be also a Diameter; whereby both the Circle and it's Periphery will be divided into four equal

Parts (c).

8. TO divide the Periphery of a Circle into Degrees. A Degree is the 360th Part of the Circumference. Mathematicians always divide the Periphery into

<sup>(</sup>a) Euclid. Lib. 1. Def. 17. (c) Ibid. Prop. 4. Lib. iv. (b) Ib. Prop. 11, 12, Lib. 1. C

fo many equal Parts (d); and each of these Parts into 60 smaller Divisions, called first Minutes; also each Minute into 60 Seconds, &c. commonly writ thus, 3 degr. 2. min. 5 fec. that is, 3 Degrees, 2 Minutes, 5 Seconds. Hence the Quadrant containeth 90 Degr. the Semicircle 180, and the fixth Part of a Circle 60 Degrees.

THEREFORE to folve this Problem, divide the Periphery into Quadrants, then take off the Semidiameter, and with it's Length cut an Arch from the Periphery (e), which will be equal to 60 Degr. fo there remains in the fame Quadrant 30 Degr. which being bifected you will have 15 Degr. this again mechanically trifected will give 5 Degr. which divided into five equal Parts make fo many Degrees, Q. E. F. But this is done more artificially by mathematical inftruments (f).

9. TO find the Area of a Quadrangle, or a Space contained in a Figure of four Sides, and four Right Angles. Multiply one fide by the other, and the Product is the Area. It is to be observed that Lines are measured by Lines, and Superficies by Measures that are Superficies, or Squares; also the Contents of folid Bodies, which have their Dimenfions, are computed in folid Measure, or fo many Cubes. Thus we measure the Sides of a House by a lineal Foot, the Floors and Wainfcot by a

(d) This Division of a Circle into 360 Parts, or Degrees, is because that number can be divided into more Aliquot Parts, than any other convenient Number, viz. into 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8 and 9 Parts.

(e) Euclid. Prop. 15. Lib. iv. (f) By a Line of Chords truly divided; thus, from any

Point in the Periphery lay on the Chord of one Degr. then

from the same Point lay on the Chord of two Degr. fo of three Degr. &c. 'till you come to 90 Degr. then begin again as before 'till the whole Periphery is divided. By this means you will avoid the Errors which may arife from the intermediate Divisions, and tho' these Errors fingly confidered are very finall, yet in fo many Degr. they will produce one very fensible.

fquare Foot, and the Space it encloseth, confider-

ed as a Solid, by a cubical Foot.

10. HAVING the Diameter or Semidiameter of a Circle, to find the Periphery in the same Measure: and conversly, having the Periphery given to find the Diameter as near as possible (g). The Solution of this Problem depends upon the determined Proportion of the Diameter to the Periphery, which is nearly as 7 to 22; as is demonstrated by Archimedes; or more accurately, as 1000000000 is to 31415926535 (b). For Example, let the Diameter be 12 Foot; by the Golden Rule, as 7 is to 22: so is 12 to the Periphery of the Circle; or if you use the other Proportion it will be much the same.

BUT if the Periphery be given, and the Diameter be required, fay; as 22 is to 7, or as 31415926535 to 10000000000, fo is the Periphery given to the Diameter required.

or either of them, being given in Miles or Feet, to find

(g) See Tacquet's felect Theorems of Archimedes, Prop. 5.

(b) Tho' it be well known that the Periphery of a Circle is incommenfurable to the Diameter, yet either of these Proportions will ferve well enough for common Use. But no Proportion in fmall Numbers is fo exact as that of Andrew Matius, viz. 113 to 355, which is found not to differ from the Truth above  $\frac{3}{10000000}$ . But if the Reader defireth the nicest Computation of the Proportion of the Diameter of a Circle to the Circumference (altho' that of Mætius comes very near), let him have recourse to the laborious Calculus of Van Caulen,

who carried his Calculation to 35 places of Decimal Fractions. Or if he would still be more nice and curious, he may have recourse to Mr Abr. Sharp's Calculation, to double the Number of Van Caulen's Fractions. By which Exactness the Circumference of the Terraqueous Globe, may be computed to a Degree lefs than the Breadth of a Grain of Sand: yea, more than this, the number of the Grains of Sand, that would be contained in a Space as big as the Sphere of the Fixt Stars, might be truly computed by this means. Vid. Mash. Tables printed for Mr Mount, page 53, &c.

,, ....

be

the Area of that Circle in Square Miles, or Square Feet. Multiply one half of the Periphery into the Semi-diameter, and the Product will be the Area required (i): but if you have only one of them given, you may find the other by the last Problem: Or it may be done without it (k).

12. THE Diameter, or Semidiameter, of a Globe being given; to find it's Superficies in Square, or it's

Solidity in Cubic Measure.

A Globe is a round folid Body, having a certain Point in the Center of it, from whence all right Lines drawn to the Surface are equal: and a Line drawn thro' this Point is the Diameter, about which if the Globe be revolved it is called it's Axis (1). Moreover if a Globe be cut any how by a right Line, the Section is a Circle; if thro' the Center the Circle will have the same Diameter as the Globe itself; and such are called the greater Circles of the Sphere or Globe, and the rest lesser Circles. To folve the Problem (m): By the tenth Article, find the Periphery; then multiply the Diameter into this Periphery, and the Product will be the Superficies of the Globe in square Measure, which multiplied into the + of the Diameter, will produce the Solidity of the Globe in cubic Measure.

(i) As is demonstrated by Archimedes, Prop. 1. De Di-

mensione Circuli.

(k) By faying, as the Square of 1 (which is 1) is to 7854 (the Area of a Circle whose Diameter is 1) so is the Square of any other Diameter to it's Area; By Prop. 2. Lib. ii. of Euclid. The famous M. Leibritz has demonstrated, that if the Diameter of a Circle be 1,

the true Area will be 1 -

$$\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{9}$$

$$\frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{13} - \frac{1}{15} + \frac{1}{17}$$

$$-\frac{1}{19}$$
  $\frac{1}{21}$ , &c.

(1) Euclid, Lib. ii. Def. 14,

15, 16, 17.

(m) See this demonstrated in Tacquet's Select Theorems of Archimedes, Scholium 2, of Prop. 24, and that of Prop. 28.

13. A

13. A RIGHT angled Triangle bath two sides perpendicular to each other (or make an Angle of 90 Degr.) which two sides are called the Catheti, or Perpendiculars, and the third side the Hypo-

tenuse.

THE Measure of an Angle is the Length of an Arch described from the angular Point as a Center: that is, as many Degrees as the Arch between the Legs of the Angle doth contain; so many Degrees the Angle is faid to be of. Thus a right Angle is 90 Degr. because the Arch so described is a Quadrant.

THE right Sine of an Arch is a right Line drawn from the one end of the Arch perpendicular to the Diameter, which paffeth thro' the other end (n).

THE Tangent of an Arch is a right Line which touches the Arch at one end, and is bounded at the other with a Line drawn thro' the Center, and the other end of the Arch; which Line is called the Secant of that Arch.

MOREOVER, the Sine, Tangent, and Secant, of an Angle, are the same of the Arch which measureth the Angle.

(n) Mr Whiston, in his Notes upon Tacquet's Euclid, has neatly explained the Origin of Sines, Tangents, and Secants. Coroll. to the 47th Prop. Lib. i. which we shall here transcribe. Let A Cthe Semidiameter of a Circle (Fig. 3.) be of 100,000 Parts, and the Angle BAD of 30 Deg. because the Chord or Subtense of 60 Degr. is equal to AC the Semidiameter (by Prop. 15. Lib. iv. Euclid) BD the Sine of 30 Degrees, shall be equal to one half the Semidiameter, or 1/2 AC; and therefore shall contain 50,000 Parts. But now in the right-angled Triangle

ABD, the Square of AB is equal to the Square of AD and BD. Therefore let the Semidiameter AB be squared, and from that Square Substract the Square of BD: The Remainder will be the Square of AD or of the Co-fine BF equal to it: out of which extract the square Root, and you will have the Line BF or AD. Then by this Analogy as AB: BD:: AE: CE or AD : BD :: AC : CE. so you have the Tangent CE. And if the Square of AC be added to the Square of CE, the Root of the Sum being extracted will be the Secant AE. Q. E. L.

C 3

IT is also necessary to be known that Tables have been calculated by the great Labour and Industry of some Mathematicians, in which the Diameter being taken for 100000, &c. the Sines, Tangents, and Secants, are found out in proportional Numbers; as of 2 Degr. 10 Degr. 20 Degr. 32 Min. &c. These Tables are called mathematical Canons, and are of extraordinary use in all mathematical and physical Sciences; wherefore I am willing to give fome Hints of these things to the young Geographer. But because spherical Triangles have fome Difficulty in their management, and regard none but those who defire to be deeper skilled in this Science, we shall pass them by; and only treat of right-angled Triangles, the measuring of which is as easy as necessary.

#### Two THEOREMS.

14. THE three Angles of every Triangle, taken together, are equal to two right Angles, or 180 Degr. and therefore the two acute Angles of a right angled Triangle make exactly 90 Degr. (0). Also if a right Line touch a Circle, and there be drawn from the Point of Contast another right Line to the Center, that Line makes a right Angle with the Tangent (p).

15. THE most necessary Problems are these.

I. THE Hypotenuse and one side of a right angled Triangle being given, to find either of the acute Angles. Say, by the Golden Rule; As the given Hypotenuse is to the given side: so is the Radius 100000 (which Number is affumed equal to the Semidiameter in the Tables) to the Sine of the opposite Angle; which Sine being found in the Tables

<sup>(</sup>o) Euclid. Prop. 32. Lib. i. (p) Ibid. Prop. 18. Lib. iii. will

will thew the Quantity of the Arch or Angle opposite to the Side given; and the other Angle is the complement of that now found, to 90 Degr.

- II. ONE fide and the acute Angle next it being given, to find the Hypotenuse. Say, as before; As the Sine of the Complement of the given Angle is to the Radius 1000000: so is the Side given to the Hypotenuse sought.
- III. HAVING two Sides given, to find either of the acute Angles. Say, As either of the Sides is to the other, so is the Radius 100000 to the Tangent of the Angle adjacent to the Side first assumed.
- IV. HAVING the Hypotenuse and one acute Angle given, to find either of the Sides: Say; As the Radius 100000 is to the Sine of the Angle opposite to the Side required: So is the given Hypotenuse to that Side.

### Of Divers Measures.

BECAUSE the use of Measures is frequent in Geography, and since divers Nations use different Measures, 'tis proper to premise somewhat concerning them; partly that the Reader may the better understand the Writings of the antient Geographers and Historians; and partly that he may compare together those in use at this Day.

THE Length of a Foot is almost universally made use of, the a Foot in one Place differs from that in another. Mathematicians frequently measure by the Rhinland Foot of Snellius, which he proves to be equal to the old Roman Foot. And because Snellius was very diligent and accurate in measuring the Earth, that Rhinland Foot

C 4

of his is deservedly taken as a Standard for all other Measures (q). See half it's Length, (Fig. 1.)

A PERCH or Pole ought to confift of ten fuch Feet. But the Surveyors in Holland make 12 Feet a Rhinland Perch, and in Germany they compute 16; which is very incommodious in Calculation. Snellius makes the Holland Mile equal to 1500 Rhinland Perches (each Perch being 12 Foot) or 1800 Rhinland Feet.

THESE two Measures, a Perch and a Mile, arise from the repetition of a Foot; but a Palm, an Inch, and a Barley-Corn, (which are fometimes used in Holland) proceed from it's Division. An Inch is the twelfth Part of a Foot. A Palm is 4 Inches. A Barley-Corn is the fourth Part of an Inch. However it would be much better to divide the Foot into 10 Inches, and the Inch into 10 Subdivisions or Seconds, &c.

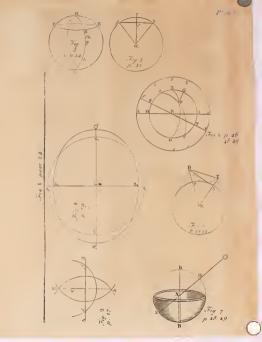
THESE are the Measures now made use of by the Dutch in Geography. It remains that some others be also taken Notice of; viz. those of the Antients, whether Greeks, Romans, Perfians, Agyptians; and those also of later Times as of the Turks, Polanders, Germans, Moscovites, Italians, Spaniards, French, and English.

(9) Because the Knowledge of an English, French, and Rhinlandiff Foot will be of use in what follows, we will here give their Proportions; to which we shall add the Measure of the old Roman Foot, taken from Dr

Bernard's Treatise of Weights and Measures, where he most learnedly confutes the great Error of Snellius in this Matter.

If an English Foot be divided into 1000 Parts, and a French Foot into 1440. Then,

~	7 (1	Eng. Parts	7 (	Fr. Parts	
English	18	1000		1350	Jurin's Ap.
TI French	くまく	1066	5 2 2	1440	pendix.
8 ) Rhinland		1030	( -)	1300	4.
Roman	2 " (	970	2 6	1300	



THE Grecian Stadium, or Furlong, is supposed to be 600 of their Feet, which make 625 Roman, or Rhinland, Feet; their Foot being a little larger than the Roman.

A GERMAN Mile (15 of which Geographers allow to a Degree) contains 22800 Rhinland Feet, and is accounted 4000 Paces, or 32 Furlongs. It is in Proportion to the Rhinland Mile,

as 19 to 15.

THE Italian or Roman Mile is 1000 Paces, which is equal to 4000 Rhinland Feet. Note, The Romans used to call their Mile Lapis, because a Stone was erected at the end of every Mile; especially in Places adjacent to the City.

A GEOMETRICAL Pace is exactly 5 Feet; and a Fathom 6 Feet; which is thought by fome to

have been the Pace of the Grecians.

A CUBIT is supposed to be a Foot and a half. THE Parasange, or Persian Mile, is thought

to be 30 Furlongs, or 3000 Persian Paces.

THE Schanus, or Agyptian, Mile, according to Herodotus, contains 60 Furlongs, tho' only 40 according to Pliny. Perhaps their Length differed in divers Places, or the Furlongs of the Authors might be unequal: Or very likely their Books are corrupted.

THE French League is in Proportion to the Rhinlandish Mile, as 19 to 25; and the Spanish League is to the same Mile, as 19 to  $27\frac{1}{2}$ : But because in several Parts of France and Spain their League is found to differ, we cannot be well assu-

red of the Length of these Measures.

THE English Mile is in Proportion to the Rhinlandish, as 19 to 55, or as 19 to 60, (r). But there

<sup>(</sup>r) The least Part of English and well dried; whereof 3 in Measure is a Barley-Corn, taken Length make an Inch, &c. as out of the middle of the Ear in the following Table.

A Table

there are three forts of English Miles, whereof 275 of the longest, 50 of the middle Kind, and 60 of the shortest, make a Degree or 19 Dutch Miles.

THE Danish and Swedish Mile is to the Rhinlandish Mile as 19 to 10; tho' in some Places they

use the German Mile.

THE Vorest, or Russian, Mile is as 19 to 80. THE Turkish League or Mile is said to be equal to the Italian Mile; of which 60 make a Degree.

THE Arabian League was formerly accounted the twenty fifth Part of a Degree, or 19 Holland Miles: but they now use another of which 56

make a Degree.

A HUNDRED Indian Miles are thought to equal a Degree. Tho' the Indians commonly defcribe Distances by a Day, or an Hour's Journey.

THE Inhabitants of Cambaya and Guzarat, use a Measure which they call Cossa, of which 30

make a Degree.

THE Chinese observe three Measures in their Journies, which they call Li, Pu, and Uchan. Li is the Distance at which a Man's loud Voice may be heard on a Plain, in a calm Air; which is accounted 300 Geometrical Paces. Their Pu contains 10 Li's;

A Table of English Measure.

Bar. C.							
3	Inches						
36	I 2	Feet	1				
108	36	3	Yard.				
180	60	5	$1\frac{2}{3}$	Pace			
216	72	6	2	I s	Fath.		
594	198	16%	5 1/2	410	2 3	Poles	
23760	7920	660	220	132	IIC	40	Furl.
180090							

CHAP. 2. of Universal Geography. 27

fo that 20 Pu's make a Degree. And 10 Pu's make an Uchan, or 30000 Paces; which they account a

Day's Journey.

Note, A Square Rhinland Mile confifts of Square Feet and a Cubic Mile of Cubic Feet. Also a Mile multiplied into itself makes a Square Mile; and that again by a Mile makes a Cubic Mile. The fame is to be understood of a Square and Cubic Foot.



# SECT. II.

Containing some general and absolute Properties of the Earth, in five Chapters.

#### CHAP. III.

Of the Figure of the Earth.

HE first and noblest Property of the Earth (as exceeding the rest in being more useful and necessary) is it's Figure; without the Knowledge of which there can be nothing well understood or demonstrated in this Science; and all the following Propositions almost entirely depend on, or immediately flow from, this; which for that Reafon-

ought to be first treated of.

THERE have been, and are to this Day, feveral Opinions about the Figure of the Earth; for the Vulgar that understand not Geography, imagine it to be extended into a vast Plain bounded with a Circular Line; except where Mountains and Vallies interpose. Of this strange Opinion was Lastantius and others of the Fathers, who strenuously argued that the Earth was extended infinitely downwards,

wards, and established upon feveral Foundations (a). This they were inclined to think from some Places of Scripture which they either ill understood or wrong interpreted. Heraclitus, that antient Philofopher, is faid to have been of their Opinion: tho' others fay, he supposed the Earth to be in the Shape of a Skiff, or Canoo, very much hollowed. But what is more strange Francis Patricius (a modern Philosopher of no fmall Repute in the last Age) ftrenuoufly endeavoured to prove, that the Earth was horizontally stretched out and plain under Foot. Anaximander is faid by Peucerus to have supposed the Earth like a Cylinder; tho' that is not fo probable, because he tried to measure it, and also invented a fort of a Dial at Lacedamon, upon which the Top of the Gnomon by it's Shadow marked out the Days of the Equinoxes, and Solftices: which shewed him to have been tolerably skilled in Astronomy, confidering the Time he lived in. Leucippus also thought the Earth to be in the Shape of a Drum. These with a great many other absurd Opinions, are by Aristotle and others attributed to the Antients: of which see Aristotle Lib. ii. Cap. 13. de Calo.

BUT the true and undoubted Opinion, which is defended by all Mathematicians, and almost all Philosophers, is, That the Earth is of a globular

or fpherical Figure (b).

THE

(a) See Lastontius Lib. iii. Chap. 24. and Augustin. Lib. xvi. Chap. 9. De Civit. Dei. They thought their Opinion was favoured by the Pfalmift. Pfal. xxiv. 2. and cxxxvi. 6.

(b) Among the many excellent and wonderful Inventions of the modern Philosophers. this here is not certainly in the last Place, nor hath the least

Honour and Admiration in it; that the true Figure of the Earth, which Men have inhabited for fo many thousand Years, is but now begun to be known a few Years ago. For that which all Men thought to be globular and truly spherical, is now found to imitate rather an oval Figure, or that of an Ellipsis revolved about it's lesser Axis Axis: So that those Diameters are longest which come nearest the Equator, and lessen as they become more remote, but the least Diameter of all is the Axis which joineth the two Poles. The Thing will perhaps be better understood if it be represen-

ted by a Figure. Let æ pap (Fig. 4.) be a circular Section of the Earth made by the Meridian, fuch as it was thought to be formerly, and ppthe Axis or Diameter joining the Poles, and eq the Diameter of the Equator: then the oval Line ÆPQP, described upon the Diameter Æ Q and P P, will represent the Section or true Meridian Line, which for Distinction sake is made here to differ more from a Circle than it really ought to do; but in truth, the Proportion is as 692 to 689. So that the Line CQ measuring the Altitude of the Earth at the Equator, exceeds CP the Altitude at the Pole 85200 Paris Feet, or about 17 Miles.

This Affair is well worthy to be traced to it's Original, and to bebacked by a Demonstration, fo far as our Purpose will permit. See the History of the Royal Academy of Sciences by du Hamel, Pag. 110, 156, 206. Also Hist. de l'Acad. Roy. 1700, 1701.

The French made an Experiment about forty Years ago, shewing that a Pendulum (which is a well known Instrument for measuring of Time) vibrates so much the slower, by how much the nearer it is brought to the Equator: that is, the Gravity, of Celerity of Descent of the Pendulum, and of all other Bo-

dies, is less in Countries approaching the Equator than in Places near either Pole. The two famous Philosophers Newton and Huygens being excited by the Novelty of the Thing, and fearthing more narrowly in to the Cause of it, found thereby that the Earth must have some other Figure than what was known; and also demonstrated that this Diminution of Weight doth naturally arise from the Rotation of the Earth round it's Axis; which Rotation, according to the Laws of circular Motion, repels all heavy Bodies from the Axis of Motion: fo that this Motion being swifter under the Equator than in Parts more remote, the Weight of Bodies must also be much less there than nearer the Poles. Therefore the Parts of the Ocean under the Equator being made lighter, and according to the Nature of all Fluids, preffed and forced on either fide by the Waters nearer the Poles, they must be raised up to a greater Height, that so they may better fupport and balance the greater Weight of the contiguous Waters. Which mutual Libration is demonstrated upon Supposition of that Inequality of the Diameters which we mentioned above. The Figure of the Sca being refembled by the Lands adjacent, which are every where faid Form must be attributed to the whole terraqueous Globe. They that would be more fully informed in this Matter may consult Newton's Principia Lib. iii. Prop. 19. or Huygen's Treatife of the Cause of Gravity.

THE Arguments indeed which Authors offer to confirm the Truth of this, are handled fo obscurely and confusedly, that they are almost insufficient to convince the strenuous and obstinate Defenders of the contrary Opinion. We shall therefore as much as is possible, clear up and examine these Arguments; that the Reader may have a distinct Knowledge of them, and know the better how to use them.

WE shall not here take notice of such Reasons as are of less Weight, and at best only probable, or perhaps fophistical. Such as, 1. A spherical Figure is the most capacious; and therefore the Earth ought to have fuch a Figure. 2. All the Parts of the Earth tend to the fame Center; therefore all thefe

The fame Inequality of Diameter is also found in the Planet Jupiter, by the Observations of those Excellent Astronomers Caffini and Flamstead, and that much more than in our Earth; because the diurnal Rotation of that Planet is more than twice as fwift as the Rotation of the Earth: which plainly proves, that the Difference arises from no other Cause than the circular Motion.

Turin's Appendix. Dr Derham (in his Physico. Theol. B. ii. C. 1. Note (a) doth not feem to entertain any doubts concerning the terraqueous Globe, and the other Planets, being of a prolate spheroidal Figure; but he faith, That altho' he hath often viewed Jupiter, and other Planets, with very good Glasses, which he hath of 72 feet, and the Royal Society's Glass of above 120 feet, yet he never could perceive them to be otherwise than perfectly globu-

And he thinks it next to impossible, to take an exact meafure of the Polar and Æquatoreal Diameters, by reason of the Smallness of their apparent Diameters in a Micrometer, and their Motion all the time of mea-

furing them.

And as to the Variation of the Vibrations of Pendulums, under the Line, and in the Northern and Southern Latitudes, he hath no doubt, but different Distances from the Earth's Center, may cause different Vibrations; but yet he shews, from good Experiments he made with Pendulums in the Air-Pump, that those Alterations might, in some measure, be from the Rarity and Denfity of the Air, in the different Zones. And I may add to Dr. Derham's Experiments, the Lengthening of Iron Rods by Heat, and their Shortening by Cold; which I have found to be very confiderable, by very exact Experiments.

Parts ought to make up a globular Figure. 3. When at the first Creation the Waters were confusedly mixed with the Earth, it was then without doubt moist and soft; but the Figure of all moist and liquid Bodies is spherical: and so ought the Earth to remain after the separation of the moist Parts from the dry.

I SAY, neglecting these and such like Arguments, let us look out for better; which are of three kinds. Of the first there is only one deduced à priori, as they call it: those of the other two kinds are demonstrated à posteriori; or from Celestial or Ter-

restrial Observations and Appearances.

THE first Argument is taken from the Nature of Water, and borrowed either from Aristotle or Archimedes. Aristotle in his second Book de Calo, chap. 5th, proposes it as his own, after this manner, (tho' it is likely he borrowed it from fome Philosopher before him). If we take it for granted (fays he) that Water of it's own Nature tends always down to the most concave or lowest Place; it will necessarily follow, that the Superficies of the Water is round or spherical; but that Place is most concave that is nearest the Center of the Earth, therefore let there be drawn from the Center a two right Lines as and  $\alpha \gamma$ ; and from  $\beta$  to  $\gamma$  the Line  $\beta \gamma$ ; to which from a let fall the Perpendicular as. (c) It is plain the Line as (Fig. 5.) is less than as or ay, and therefore the Place  $\beta$  is lower and more concave then  $\beta$  or y; therefore the Water must flow downwards from β and γ'till the Lines αβ, αγ, and αδ are equal, that is, 'till  $\alpha \beta$  becomes  $\alpha \beta$  equal to  $\alpha \beta$ , and  $\alpha \gamma$ ; hence  $\beta$ ,  $\varepsilon$ , and  $\gamma$  being in the Periphery of the fame Circle, must make the true Superficies of the Water of a round Figure.

<sup>(</sup>c) Euclid, Lib. i. Prop. 18.

THIS is Aristotle's Demonstration, in which, besides the Incoherency of it, which might be easily amended, I observe these greater Errors. 1. He supposeth the Universe to have a certain Center. 2. That Places are higher or lower in respect to that Center. Now he who denies the fpherical Figure of the Earth, will perhaps grant neither of these Postulata: Tho' the Universe may be easily proved to have a Center, because the apparent Motion of the fixed Stars obligeth us to suppose that they themselves either revolve by a diurnal Motion, or that the Earth is turned about it's Center. If the Stars be really moved, then the Point about which they will revolve will certainly be the Center of the Universe. If the Earth; then the middle Point round which it moves, may, in the Demonstration, be taken for Aristotle's central Point. But the chief Difficulty is in the fecond Supposition; viz. that Places are higher or lower in respect of that Center; because he who will have the Superficies of the Earth to be a Plane, or fome other Figure, not round, will deny this Supposition, and say that Places appear higher or lower in respect of the horizontal Plane, perpendicular to which the Earth is infinitely extended downwards; or will perhaps explain the Declivity fome other way; fo that the Argument would not be conclusive except it were first granted that the Elevation of one Place above another is only in respect of some Center, about which the Stars have their apparent Motion. And tho' this were true, and all other Notions of Declivity by which Water is depressed were consuted, yet it could scarcely be admitted for a Principle, because it precariously supposes the Earth to be of a spheric Figure, which is begging the Question.

THEREFORE some prefer Archimedes's Demonstration (found in the first Book of his De Insidentibus Humido) which is indeed more artificial than

that of Aristotle; yet labours under the same Difficulties, in previously supposing the Earth to be of a spheric Figure, to whose Center the pressure of the Water is made. But we are far from supposing that the divine Archimedes could be guilty of any false Reasoning! No, his Design in that Book was not to demostrate the spherical Figure of the Earth (for then he had indeed begged the Question) but only to explain the Nature of Water and other Liquids; in order to which he pre-supposes the Earth to be of a spherical Figure, or to have a Center, to which all heavy Bodies in general tend; and this he takes as a Principle before known and demonstrated from other Phænomena: So that I wonder Clavius did not observe this, who, in his Commentary upon Joannes de Sacro Bosco, uses this Demonstration of Archimedes for the spheric Figure of the Earth: Snellius also does the same in his Eratosthenes Batavus. But it was Aristotle's Design in the Place before cited to demonstrate the spheric Figure of the Earth, Sea, and Heavens; wherefore he could not assume a Center to the Universe, or Earth, without being guilty of a manifest Paralogism.

SO that this Argument taken from the Nature of Water, tho it be proposed be almost all Authors, yet labours under some Difficulties, which more learned Mathematicians have endeavoured to remove, if possible. I have myself spent some Time upon this Matter, and tryed several Methods, but could not bring them to bear. I was induced to attempt the Thing, because it would be an elegant and unquestionable Demonstration of the spherical

Figure of the Earth.

THEREFORE waving this; we shall now propose some Arguments à posteriori, taken sirst from celestial Phænomena. Let us conceive a Section made by a plane or a meridian Line (which is called the Line of Latitude) to pass thro' a Place B,

VOL. I. D

or any other Part of the Earth, and also thro' the two Poles M, N; as ABCD. And suppose another Section (or Line of Longitude) (Fig. 3.) to pass thro' the fame Point B, perpendicular to the former, and parallel to the Equator; as EBFC. I fay thefe two Sections or Lines on the Surface of the Earth may be proved to be circular. And it is a plain geometrical Theorem, that any Superficies whatever, when it is cut with perpendicular Planes, interfecting each other in one common Line or Axis, if the Lines produced on the Surface be circular, the Body can be no other than ipherical.

THEREFORE if we can prove, that the two perpendicular Sections are circular, which pass thro' any Point, B, taken at Pleafure; we may also by the aforefaid Theorem conclude the Superficies of the Earth to be of a spherical Figure, and the

Earth itself a globular Body.

NOW it is proved from divers celeftial Phænomena, that a Section made from one Pole to another, according to the Latitude of the Earth, is circular. 1. If in the Line ABCD, a Person go from any Point, as B, towards either Pole, as M, or the Star near it; he will find that by equal Journies he will equally approach nearer the Pole; which would be impossible if the Line he travelled in was not circular; as is plainly shewed by the artificial terrestrial Globe. 2. The Line ABCD is the meridian Line, into which when the Sun comes it is Noon or Mid-Day with us; and all the People who inhabit that Line, as we know by Experience; and they that fail in the Torrid Zone testify, that the Sun at some Time of the Year is perpendicular to some Place in the Line ABC; for Example, to P. If we take equal Spaces BQ, PQ (or any other) we shall find the Distance of the Sun from the Zenith of Q, equal to the Interval, by which the Distance of the Sun from the Zenith of B exceeds the Distance

of the same from that of Q; which could by no means happen if the Line BPQ was not circular.

3. In like manner all the Stars when they come to the Meridian ABC, have their Distances from the Zeniths of P, Q, B, in the same Proportion as the Distances QP, PB, QB. Moreover when our Mariners sail towards the South, the Stars which before were depressed under the Horizon, and could not be seen, begin to appear, and by degrees are elevated in proportion to their Course.

4. If several Places be observed in the same Meridian, and the Stars that pass thro' their Zeniths be noted; the Distances of these Places have the same Proportion one to another, as the Distances of the meridional Points, wherein the several vertical Stars make their south-

ing.

ALSO to prove that the Line of Longitude EBFC is circular, and that the Earth rifes into a globular Figure, according to that other Dimension, we need but observe that the Sun and Stars rise and fet sooner to those that inhabit eastward of us, but later to them that are more to the west; and also that the Difference of Time is in proportion to the Dittances of their Meridians from ours. Thus, if we suppose two Places directly East, the one distant from us 225 Miles, the other 450, twice as much; we shall find that in this last Place the Sun riseth two Hours fooner, and in the other one Hour fooner than with us. The Argument will be more clear, if it be proposed about the Sun's approaching the Meridians of divers Places; for their Diftances in respect of ours are in Proportion to the Time of the Sun's apparent Motion (or an Arch of the Equator intercepted between our Meridian and theirs) as is evident in Eclipses. These Facts agree precisely to the Demonstrations upon the Artificial Globe: which could not happen if the Earth had any other Figure.

D 2

SO

SO that the Earth is found to have a spherical

Form, both in Longitude and Latitude.

BUT fince there feems to be a Difficulty in handling the Longitude, all this may be proved by the Latitude only. For it is manifest, that the Figure of the Earth is fpherical, fince all the Sections, or Lines of Latitude, are circular; and pass thro' the fame Point or Pole. Because any folid Body whatfoever being cut with innumerable Planes, all passing thro the same Point; if the Peripheries of these Sections are circular, the Body itself must be fpherical: as is known and allowed by all Geometricians.

THERE is another Reason of no less Force, taken from the Shadow of the Earth upon the Face of the Moon in Lunar Ecliples. For fince the obscured Part of the Moon, caused by the conical Shadow of the Earth, feems always to be bounded with a circular Line; the Earth itself, for that Reason, must needs be spherical (d). Because it is manifest from Optics that a folid Body being every way opposed to the Sun; if the Shadow be always conical, the Body itself is spherical.

IF these Arguments are not sufficient, we might produce a great many more, from the confideration of the Earth itself, which perfectly prove the Earth's

Rotundity: fuch as thefe;

(d) Tacquet (in his Astronomy Lib. iv.) hath demonfirated that the Shadow of the Earth never reaches fo far as the Moon; fo that the Moon is darkened not by the Shadow of the Earth, but by that of its Atmosphere only; which was obferved, tho' not fo exactly demonstrated, by Kepler and Ricciolus. But whether the Sha-

dow proceed from the Earth itfelf, or the Atmosphere, (tho' the latter indeed be the Truth) the Thing is the fame in the present Case: for if the Shadow of the Atmosphere be circular, the Shadow of the Earth which is enclosed on every Side thereby must be circular too. Whiston's Astron. Lett. Pag. 2

1. FROM Circumnavigation; for the Europeans have feveral times fet Sail from Europe, and steer'd their Course directly South and West, 'till they came to the Magellanic Sea; and from thence to the North and West 'till they returned to Europe from the East; and all the Phænomena, which should naturally arise from the Earth's Rotundity, happened to them. Their Method of sailing also was sounded upon this Hypothesis; which could never have succeeded so happily if the Earth had been of any other Figure \*.

2. WHEN we take our Departure from high Mountains and Towers; first the lower Parts, then those that are higher, and lastly, their Tops are by degrees depressed, as it were, and hid from us: Or the other Hand, when we approach towards them, from a Place at a great Distance, first the Top appears, then the middle Part, and lastly, when we come pretty near, the very Foot of the Mountain is discovered. So that this gradual Appearance and Occultation, is such as must necessarily happen from

the spherical Figure of the Earth.

3. IF we measure the Altitude of any Mountain upon this Supposition, that the Earth is globular; the Practice is always found to justify the Truth of the Theory.

W E might demonstrate many of these Arguments geometrically; but (because it would be both

Simon Cordes in the Year 1590 By Oliver Nort, Anno 1598. By Cornel Scharten, Anno 1615, And by Jacob Heremites, Anno 1623; and all by directing their Course constantly from East to West; and thus returned into Europe, having all along observed the Phænomena which necessarily arise upon supposing the Earth a spherical Body.

3 laborious

<sup>\*</sup> Ferdinando Magellan was the first who sailed round the Earth, in the Year 1519, he performed it in 1124 Days. Sir Francis Drake was the next, in the Year 1577, and he performed it in 1056 Days. The same was afterwards done by Sir Thomas Cavendish, in the Year 1586; in the Space of 777 Days. It was done again by Mynheer

laborious and difficult to prove this, or that Line circular, from fuch Principles, &c.) we shall content ourselves with those evident Proofs above delivered: which being collected into one Sum, will fufficiently demonstrate the Earth to be globular. As, first, the celestial Phænomena (viz. the different Elevation of the Pole; the unequal Altitude of the Sun, at the fame Instant, in different Countries; the Earth's Shadow on the Moon; the vast Increase of the longest Day towards the Poles; the Rising and Setting of the Stars; their perpetual Appearance near the Pole, &c.) do all equally prove the Earth's Rotundity. Also the terrestrial Appearance (viz. The Art of Navigation; the Appearance and Occultation of Mountains and Towers; the Distances of Places; the Winds and Points of the Compass,  $\mathcal{C}(c)$  can only be accounted for by this Figure and no other. Also the artificial Globe, which we make to reprefent the Earth, exhibits all these Things as they really are on the Earth; which would certainly, in some Cases, be different, except this was it's true Representation. The Earth is not of a plane Figure, as is manifest from the aforesaid Arguments; nor of a hollow Figure; for then the Sun and Stars would appear sooner to the western Inhabitants than to those of the East: But we see the Rising Sun every Day illuminates the Vallies, before it shines upon the back Parts of the opposite Mountains \*.

\* Another Argument is drawn from the commodious and equal Distribution of the Waters in the Earth. 'For fince, by the Law of Gra-' vity, the Waters will pof-! fefs the lowest place; therefore, if the Mass of the Earth was cubic, prifmatic, or any other angular Figure, it would

' follow, that one (too vast a ' Part) would be drowned; and another too dry. But being thus orbicular, the Waters are equally and commodiously ' distributed here and there ac-

cording as the Divine Provi-' dence faw most fit. Derham's · Phylico-Theology, Book 2 Ch.

6 1. Art. 2.

A fpherical Body also is the only one that is similar, or hath all it's Parts alike among themselves; so that they may be mutually applied one to another. For if two equal Parts of a Sphere be considered, the Properties of each are the same; which will not hold in any other Body. Thus in measuring the Earth in different Places; if it be performed by the same Method, it is always found of the same Magnitude: which doth not a little contribute to the Proof of these Afsertions.

A N Y impartial Person may easily perceive of how little Weight their Reasons are, who believe the Earth to be of a plane Figure. For which they argue, 1. Because on a clear Day the Earth seems to be plane, as well as the Sea, if we look every way round about us (e). 2. If the Surface of it was not plane, it would be more eafily moved, and more subject to fall to pieces; whereas flat Figures are more firm and stable (f). 3. The Rifing or Setting Sun and Moon are cut, as it were, with right Lines; but if the Earth was spherical, they ought to be divided by circular ones. Thus the Ancients reasoned, ridiculously, as Artistotle tells us. 4. Some argue that the many high Mountains must, of necessity, deface it's Rotundity. 5. Others believe the Sea to be higher than the Earth. 6. Some again think it impossible that Men should stand upon the opposite

(e) This Argument is confuted by what is faid above, about the Appearance and Difappearance of Mountains.

(f) A fpherical Body is not fo liable to decay and fracture as another, because all the Parts of the Surface are equidistant from the Center. And we are taught by Sir Isaac Newton's Principles, that the Divine Being at the Creation, bestowed the

Power of Attraction upon all the Matter in the Universe, whereby all Bodies, and all the Parts of Bodies, mutually attract themselves and one another; which, as the Rev. Dr Derham observes, is the natural Cause of the Sphericity of our common Globe. See Newton's Principia, Lib. 3. Prop. 7. Also Derham's Physico-Theol. p. 40.

Part

Part of the Earth to us; and not fall headlong into the Sky. This last has created a Scruple not only with the Vulgar, but even with some Men of Letters; which I could scarce have believed, had I not heard them confess, that tho' they could not deny the spherical Figure of the Earth for many urgent Reasons; yet they could not remove this one Objection out of their Minds; not to mention the Taunts and Scoss of St Augustine, and other Fathers, upon this Subject. These and such like Reasons are soon consuted by any one: and that the highest Mountains have scarce any Proportion to the Semidiameter of the Earth, we shall afterwards demonstrate (g).

THEREFORE, fince the spherical Eigure of the Earth is plainly proved and demonstrated, we ought to make ourselves acquainted with those Definitions and Properties which are applied to, and found in the Sphere, or Globe, by Geometricians, and accommodate them to the Earth; as the Center, the Diameter, the Axis and Poles, the greater and lef-

fer Circles of the Sphere,  $\mathcal{C}_{c.}(b)$ .

WHO

(g) The highest Mountains are so inconsiderable to the Semidiameter of the Earth; that they alter the Figure of it no more than Dust upon the Surface of our common Globes, as is proved below, Ch. 9. Prop. 7.

(b) Tacquet (Lib. 1. Chap. 2. of his Aftronomy) has drawn fome very neat Confequences from the roundness of the Earth; which we shall here transcribe from Dr Clarke's Notes on Rohault's Physics. Vol. ii. Pag. 5.

t. If any Part of the Earth's Superficies were plane, Men could no more fland upright upon it, than upon the fide of a mountain.

2. Because the Superficies of the Earth is globular, the Head of a Traveller goes a longer Journey than his Feet: and he who rides on Horseback, goes a longer Journey than he who walks the same Way on Foot. So, likewise, the upper Part of the Mast of a Ship goes more Way than the lower; viz. Because they move in Part of a larger Circle.

3. If a Man goes the whole Circumference of the Earth's Orb; the Journey which his Head travels exceeds that of his Feet, by the Circumference of a Circle whose Radius is the

Man's height,

4. if.

WHO it was that first found out the Earth's fpherical Figure, lies hid in the dark Ruins of Antiquity. Certainly the Opinion is very ancient (i); for when Babylon was taken by Alexander, Eclipses were there found calculated and foretold, for many Years before Christ: which could not be done without the Knowledge of the Earth's Figure. Nor can Thales the Grecian be thought to have been ignorant of it, by his foretelling an Eclipse.



#### CHAP. IV.

Of the Mensuration and Magnitude of the Earth.

THE Menfuration of the Earth is founded upon the Solution of these three Problems. To measure the Diameter or Semidiameter, and also the Circuit or Periphery. 2. To find the Area or

4. If a Veffel full of Water be raifed perpendicularly, fome of the Water would continually run over, and yet the Vessel would be always full. viz. Because the Superficies of the Water is continually depressed into Part of a larger Sphere.
5. If a Vessel full of Water

were carried directly downwards tho' none of it run over, yet the Vessel would not be full, viz. Because the Superficies of the Water is continually raised into Part of a less Sphere.

6. Whence it follows, that the fame Veffel will hold more

Water at the Foot of a Mountain than at the Top; and more in a Cellar than in a Chamber,

To which may be added, lastly, that twoThreads upon which two Steel Balls hang perpendicularly (or two Walls of a House raised by a Plumb Line) are not parallel to each other, but Parts of two Radius's which meet at the Center of the Earth.

(i) Ptolemy, in his Almagest, tells the Times of three Lunar Eclipses, observed by the Babylonian Astronomers. The first on the 19th of March 721 Years before Christ: The next or Extent of the Superficies. 3. To compute the Solidity, Mass, or Magnitude. These have such a Relation among themselves, that one being known the rest are obtained by Geometrical Propositions, supposing the Earth a Sphere; as is shewn in Chap. 2.

THIS Proposition has been esteemed so advantageous and useful, that it hath employed and exercised the greatest Genius's for many Ages: so that whole Volumes have been writ only upon this Subject. Wherefore I thought it would not be unacceptable to the Students in Geography, to give a short

History of the Mensuration of the Earth.

DIOGENES Laërtius highly commends Anaximander, a Disciple of Thales, for that, besides other Astronomical Inventions, he first discovered the Perimeter or Circuit of the terraqueous Globe. This Anaximander lived about 550 Years before the Birth of our Saviour: and Authors mention no other Measure but his, to be used by the Mathematicians of fucceeding Ages, even 'till the Time of Eratosthenes: fo that it is (very likely) his Measure, which Aristotle mentions in the end of his second Book De Calo. " Mathematicians, says be, who 66 have attempted to measure the Earth say it is 400,000 Furlongs round." Hence we have the Dimensions of the Earth according to Anaximander. But besides this one Testimony of Diogenes Laërtius, we are entirely in the dark by what Invention, Ar-

on the 8th of March 720 Years before Christ; and the third on September 1st, 710 Years before the same Æra. And Herodotus (in his History, Lib. 1. Sect. 74. Pag. 30) says, "That "after the War had been car-"ried on six years between the "Medes and Lydians: as then

<sup>&</sup>quot; Medes and Lydians; as they

vere going to battle, the

<sup>&</sup>quot;Day became presently as dark as the Night; which Change

<sup>&</sup>quot; had been predicted by Thales " to the Ionians." This was about 594 Years before Christ; which shews us that the Philosophers in these early Times were not ignorant of the true Figure of the Earth.

tifice, or Method, Anaximander found out this Meafure. Therefore Eratosthenes (who attempted it next after him, and lived about 200 Years before Christ; being perfectly skilled in Mensuration, and other Parts of Mathematics) is justly celebrated and esteemed by all, as the first and most accurate Measurer of the Earth. He discovered the Perimeter of it to be about 250000 Furlongs; or, as others say, 252.000; which are, as Pliny tells us, 31.500.000 Roman Paces, equal to 31.500 Miles of 1000 Paces each.

STRABO relates the Contents of three Books of Geography that had been writ by Eratosthenes, which are now loft, thro' the Injury of Time. Cleomedes also mentions the Method he used in measuring the Earth; which we shall explain afterwards. However, this Measure of Eratosthenes was judged by feveral Mathematicians (and first by Hipparchus about 100 Years after) to deviate fomething from the Truth: tho' Hipparchus himself has not lest us his Method of Mensuration; but only added 25.000 Furlongs to Eratosthenes's Perimeter. After him Posidonius (an excellent practical Astronomer, and also well skilled in Philosophy; a little before Christ, in the Time of Cicero and Pompey) fet about it, and found, by his Mensuration, the Circumference of the Earth to be 240.000 Furlongs, as Cleomedes tells us. But Strabo differs from him, and fays it was 180.000: whence there arose great Doubts and Disputes about the Cause of this Difference. It is true, Strabo's Method is delivered in few Words, and is in Fact much nearer the Truth than the other: but because Cleomedes both read and taught Posidonius's Geography, we shall explain his Method hereafter.

NEVERTHELESS, the Dimensions of Eratosthenes were made use of by many; even 'till the Time of Ptolemy. And he, in the year of Christ 144, used 180.000 Furlongs, as the Perimeter, and

affirmed

affirmed it to be most agreeable to the Truth; infomuch that this Invention was, by Theon, ascribed to him. We gather also from the Writings of Ptolemy, that Marinus, a famous Geographer, by whose Writings he himself was very much instructed, had attempted fomething in this Matter.

PTOLEMY (in Lib. 1. Chap. 3, of his Geography) tells us, that he also had tried this Method, not the same Way with his Predecessors; but in Places of different Meridians: tho' he does not tell us how much he found the Perimeter to be, but contents himself with the Measure he had received from Marinus and his Predecessors, viz. 180.000 Furlongs.

AFTERWARDS, when the Cultivation of Arts by degrees disappeared in Greece, nothing was done in this Business; neither did the Romans trou-

ble themselves about it.

BUT the Arabs and Saracens having wrested the Glory of Empire and Arts out of the Hands of the Grecians, did not neglect this Part of Mathematics. For (as Snellius tells us from Abulfeda, an Arabian Geographer, who flourished about the Year of Christ 1300, and whose Writings were published at Rome) about the 800 Year of the Christian Æra, Maimon King of Arabia, or Calif of Babylon, being a great Student in Mathmatics, commanded Ptolemy's Great Construction to be translated from the Greek into Arabic, which is, by the Arabians, called Ptolemy's Almagest. This Maimon having fummoned together feveral learned Mathematicians commanded them to fearch into the Earth's Perimeter. For performing of which they made use of the Planes of Zinjan or Mesopotamia; and meafuring from North to South under the fame Meridian 'till they had decreased the Elevation of the Pole one Degr. they found the length of their Journey to be 56 Miles, or 561; from whence we find the Perimeter

CHAP. 4. of Universal Geography.

45

Perimeter of the Earth to be 20.160 Miles, or 20.

340, according to that Measure.

FROM that Time to this none were folicitous about folving the Problem. The Arabs commonly using the Dimensions they had received from their Mathematicians; and the Italians, when they began to fludy Astronomy, made use of Ptolemy's Measure, viz. 180.000 Furlongs (which make 21.600 Italian Miles, 5.400 German; fo that 60 of the former, and 15 of the latter was thought to make a Degree: but they ought to have reckoned 155 of the latter, because 32 Furlongs nearly equal a German Mile; thus the Periphery would be 5625 Germ. Miles). But about 80 Years ago Snellius, a famous Mathematician, and Professor at Leyden, observing that the Perimeter of the Earth, commonly made use of by Mathematicians (or the length a Degree, vulgarly supposed 15 Dutch Miles), was questionable, and founded upon no certain Demonstration; he thereupon applied himself with great Industry to it's Mensuration, and happily finished it; demonstrating the Magnitude of one Degree of the Earth's Periphery to be 28.500 Perches (each containing 12 Rhinland Feet) or 19 Holland Miles; and the whole Periphery to equal 6.840 Miles (reckoning 1.500 Perches, or 18.000 Rhinland Feet, to a Mile).

WE thought fit to premise this short History of the Earth's Mensuration, that the Reader may perceive by what Industry it hath been managed, and with what Difficulty effected. Now we shall treat of the different Methods of Mensuration, all sounded upon the Discovery of the Earth's spherical Figure, which we have proved in the preceding Chapter. Therefore, considering it globular, if it be cut by a Plane passing thro' the Center, the Section will be a great Circle of the Earth: if not thro' the Center, then the Section will be one of the lesser Circles. Also the Periphery of a great Circle upon the Surface of the

Earth.

Earth, is it's Circuit or Measure round. Note, This Periphery is divided (as all others are) into 360 Degr. and because the Extent of the whole cannot be measured at once, we solve the Problem by finding the Length of a Part (viz. of 1 Degr. 2 Degr. &c.) in known Measures; which Necessity often occurs in other Problems. We also frequently take the Periphery of the Earth to be a Meridian passing thro' the Place of Observation, and the North or Pole-Star; which is more easy, and less subject to Error.

The first Method; used by the Arabians and others for measuring the Earth.

LET our Horizon be bHRSs; then the Perimeter of the Terrestrial Meridian (which lies under, and is concentrical to, that in the Heavens abcd) will be ABCD, (Fig. 6.) and R will be the Center of the Earth. Suppose our Place of Observation at B, whose Zenith is b, and the Terrestrial Pole A lying under that in the Heavens a; then the Elevation of the Pole above our Horizon will be A H. or ab. Let us take another Place in the same Meridian ABCD under abcd, as G, whose Zenith is g, and Horizon f F R T t. Now suppose the Elevation of the Pole to be accurately observed in the Place B, viz. ab or AH; and also in the Place G, viz. fa or FA. Take FA from HA and the Remainder is HF, equal to BG, the Arch intercepted between the two Places. Laftly, the Distance BG equal to the Arch bg, is to be accurately measured by some known Mersure, as a Perch or a Mile. Then by the Golden Rule fay, as BG is to ABGCD, 360 Degr. fo is the known Interval in Miles or Perches, to the Miles or Perches contained in the Periphery ABGCD: or as the Arch BG is to 1 Degr. fo are the Miles in the Distance BG, to the Miles or Perches in 1 Degree. NOTE.

CHAP. 4. of Universal Geography.

47

NOTE, if you take the vulgar Computation of the Distance BG, without measuring it, then the Quantity of the Degree will be determined accordingly; as 1 Degr. will equal 15 such Miles, as BG equals

10, 80.

Example, Let B be Amsterdam, where the Elevation of the Pole A H or a b is 52 degr. 23 min. and let G be Schoonhoven, lying under the same Meridian with Amsterdam, where the Elevation of the Pole A F or a f is 51 degr 54 min. therefore F H or BG will be 29 min. but the Distance between Amsterdam and Schoonhoven is 9½ Dutch Miles, or 13875 Rhinland Perches, 12 Foot each; therefore as 29 min. is to 60 min. or 1 degr. so is 9½ Miles to 19 Dutch Miles: therefore 19 Dutch Miles equal 1 degr. and 6.840 make 360, or the whole Periphery.

OR if the Distance BG be supposed 7½ German Miles (each equal to 1900 Rhinland Perches) it will be as 29 min. is to 60 min. so is 7½ to 15 of the same German Miles, for a Degr. of which 5.400 make the whole Circumference. Thus the Elevation of the Pole at Prague is 50 degr. 6 min. and at Lincium 48 degr. 16 min. the Distance BG is 1 degr. 50 min. and the Distance is computed to be 26 German Miles; from whence the Periphery will be 5.105 Miles.

## The fecond Method, that of Eratosthenes.

AGAIN, let there be two Places under the fame Meridian; the one B, Alexandria in Egypt, where Eratosthenes, Keeper of the King's Library, lived; the other G, (Fig. 6.) the Town of Syene, a City in Egypt, under the Tropic of Cancer, and for that Reason, chosen by Eratosthenes, whose Distance from Alexandria was computed 5000 Furlongs. Let the Distance of the Sun, at Noon, from the Zeniths, g and b, of both Places be observed.

observed by an Instrument on the same Solstitial Day, viz. the 21st of June; when at Alexandria, gb or GB equals to Part of the Periphery by Observation (or 7 degr. 12 min.) but at Syene the Sun hath no Distance from the Zenith at Noon, it being exactly vertical that Day. So that the Arch of the Distance BG, intercepted between the two Places is 7 degr. 12 min. but the Distance itself is accounted 5.000 Furlongs (8 of which make an Italian Mile). Therefore by the Golden Rule, as 7 degr. 12 min. is to 1 degr. (or as 30 to 360, or as 36 to 5) fo is 5000 to 6944 Furlongs in 1 degr. Or as  $\frac{1}{50}$  is to 1, (or as 1 to 50) so is 5000 to 25000 Furlongs, the whole Periphery, according to this Measure. There are divers ways of taking the Meridian Altitude of the Sun, or it's Distance from the Vertex; as by a Quadrant, &c. Eratofthenes found it by a hollow hemispherical Dial; where the Style BX (Fig. 7.) points to the Zenith, and OXZ is a Ray of the Sun terminating the Shadow of the Style, and shews the Arch BZ equal to OB 7 degr. 12 min. the Distance of the Sun from the Zenith. But at Syene the Style hath no Shadow; nor hath the Sun any Distance from the Zenith; being perpendicular to the Plane of the Place. Therefore fince BXZ (Fig. 6, 7.) is equal to the Angle  $b \times O$ , (whose Measure is B G or b O) B G is equal to B Z 7 degr. 12 min. or 10 Part of the Periphery, as before.

### The third Method, that of Posidonius.

POSIDONIUS took two Places under the fame Meridian; viz. B, Rhodes, the Place where he lived, and G, Alexandria in Egypt; and obferved the Altitude of the Star S (Fig. 6.) (a bright Star in the Ship Argo called Canopus) when it came to the Meridian of both Places, on the same, or which is all one, on different Days. This Star did not rife above the Horizon bHs at Rhodes, but only glanced upon it at S: tho' it was elevated above the Horizon of Alexandria FRT, the Arch ts \frac{1}{45} Part of the Periphery or 7 degr. 30 min. He tells us the Diffance betwixt Alexandria and Rhodes is 5.000 Furlongs. Therefore, as 7 degr. 30 min. is to 1 degr. (or as \frac{1}{3} to \frac{1}{300}, i.e. as 360 to 48) fo is 5.000 to 666? Furlongs in 1 degr. or as 1: 48:: 5.000: 24.000 Furlongs, for the whole Periphery of the Earth, according to Posidonius.

### The fourth Method, that of Snellius.

IN the Methods above delivered, we have conflantly supposed the two Places to lie under the same Meridian; but because Places may lie plainer, and more commodious for this Purpose under different Meridians, we shall propose an Example in this Case which is that of Snellius.

LET therefore ABCD (Fig. 6.) be the Meridian of Alemair, and B, Alemair itself; where the Elevation of the Pole ba is 52 degr. 40½ min. and the Polar Distance BA 37 degr. 19½ min. 30 fec.

LET the other Place P be Bergen-of-zoom, whose Meridian is APC, and it's Distance from the Pole, or Complement of Latitude (viz. to 51 degr. 29 min.) is AP 38 degr. 31 min. therefore, having drawn PG perpendicular to ABG, the Difference of their Distances from the Pole is BG 1 degr. 11 min. 30 sec.

AFTER Snellius had taken these Observations, he accurately measured the Distance BP, between Alemair and Bergen, and found it to be 34710 Rbinland Perches; and the Angle of Position PBG 11 degr. 26 min. 2 sec. therefore in the right-angled Triangle PBG, the Hypotenuse PB and

VOL. I. E the

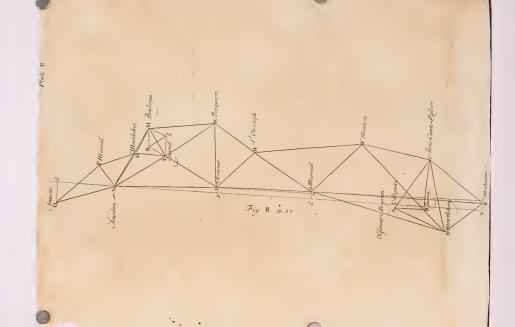
the Angle PBG being given, the Side BG is found to be 34018 Perches (which Snellius makes only 33930, for he abated 88 Perches on Account of the Stations where the Elevation of the Pole was observed). But the Arch BG, as was said before, is 71½ min. therefore as 71½ is to 1 degr. or 60 min. fo is 33930 (or 34018) to 28473 Perches; or the round Number 28500 for 1 degr. equal to 19 Dutch Miles. Or by fpherical Trigonometry; having AB, AP, and the Angle ABP given, find the Arch BP 1 degr. 14 min. which equals 34710 Perches; therefore 1 degr. will be 28300 Perches, or 18 Miles. The Reason why this Account differs from that of Suellius is; 1. He did not observe the Elevation of the Pole from the very Tops of the Towers B and P themselves, from whence the Angle GBP was taken, but from some Eminence or rifing Ground a little remote from them: yet without Doubt the Altitudes of the Pole were the fame on the Tops of the Towers. 2. Another Reason is, he took BG, BP, PG for right Lines, which are indeed circular; tho', in fo finall an Arch, the Difference is of little or no Moment. Therefore, granting Snellius's Measure of a Degree to be 28500 Perches, equal to 18 14 Miles, (and mine 28300 making 183) the Perimeter of the Earth will be, according to Snellius, 10.260,000 Perches, or 123.120.000 Feet, that is 6.840 Holland Miles (a).

The

(a) The Measure of the Earth which Snellius with great Industry discovered, hath been defervedly embraced by the Learned; as being much more accurate than any of the former. Nevertheless, in a Matter of such Moment, and which is involved with fo many Dif-

ficulties, the curious have not thought it fafe to confide in any one, tho' the most skillful, Mathematician; which we fee confirmed by Caffini, the Son of the famous Aftronomer of that Name. For he having calculated the Numbers arising from Suellius's Observation, affigned





The fifth, but first Terrestrial, Method.

HOW to perform the Work without Celeftial Observations, or a Meridian Line, is explained in the

figned a much greater Measure to the Earth than Snellius; and also discovered some Errors in his Calculation, which fpoiled the whole Process of his Work. See Hift. Acad. Scien. 1702. Add to this, that the Latitude and Angle of Position of Places can now be taken more accurately by Telescopes, which are begun, fome Years ago, to be fitted to Astronomical and Surveying Instruments, instead of bare little Pins, which Snellius used. Tho' feveral others had fet about this Work; yet fome French Mathematicians, Fellows of the Royal Academy of Sciences, did most successfully perform it: whose Mensuration far exceeds all others, both in the Number and Accuracy of their Observations, and also in the Furniture of most exquisite Instruments. Wherefore we efteem it well worth the while, to give the whole Method of Operation in short.

The Points in the Figure which are marked with Roman Letters, flew the Places chofen for Observation; whose Bearing, or Situation, in respect of the Royal Observatory at Paris, is seen in a Geographical Map. (See Fig. 8.)

By the same Method of Menfuration which Snellius used,

they proposed to find the Distance between the Parallels of the Places N and E, or the Line N a in Fathoms; fo that this Distance being known, and the Latitude of each Place N and E, or the Difference of Latitude; that is an Arch of the Meridian intercepted between the two Parallels, being found, it will appear how many Fathoms make any determined Arch of a great Circle of the Earth, fuch as the Meridian is: from whence it will be cafily found how many Fathoms equal a Degree, or the whole Periphery of the Earth. Afterwards it was thought fit to mensure the Line N ,, the Distance between the Parallels of the Places N and Q; fo that the Latitude at Q being also observed, there might be had an Arch of the Meridian equal to the whole Diftance βa. For by this Means, they could more accurately determine the Measure of the Earth's Periphery, when they had found it the fame by two Operations. Thefe Lines they measured by a continued Series of Triangles drawn from the Line AB; for it being directly plane and straight, they had the Advantage of measuring it with Iron Rods as accurately as could E 2 be,

be, and found it to be 5663 Fathom:

The Latitudes of the Places were taken by an Instrument, whose Radius was 10 Paris Feet; and the Angles of each Triangle by a Quadrant of a Circle whose Semidiameter was 3 Feet; both which Inftruments were accurately divided by Diagonal Lines.

In the first Triangle ABC. There are known by Observation The ABC 95. 06. 55. ACB 30. 48. 30. Found by Fath. Fe. measuring - - A B - 5663. 00. Hence by Calculation is found the Side - - A C - - 11012. 05.

In the fecond Trangle ADC. DAC 77°. 25'. 50'. ADC 55. 00. 00. ACD 47. 34. 00. Fath. Fe. AC 11012. 5. Hence DC 13121. 3.

In the third Triangle DE C. DEC 74°. 09' 30". DCE 40. 34 00. CDE 65. 16. 30. Fath. Fe. DC 13121. 03. Hence DE 8870. 03.

In the fourth Triangle DCF. D C F 113. 47. 40. D F C 33. 40. 00. F D C 32. 32. 20. Fath. Fe.

DC 13121. 03. Hence DF 21658. 00.

In the fifth Triangle DFG. DFG 92. 05. 20. DGF 57. 34. 00. GDF 30. 20. 40. Fath. Fe. DF 21658. 00. Hence DG 25643. 00. And FG 12963. 03.

In the fixth Triangle GDE. GDE 28. 09. 30. Fath. Fe. DG 25643. 00. DE 8874. 03. Hence GE 13897. 00.

When they had found the Line GE, by another Series of Triangles, to be 31893 Fath. 3 Feet, they divided the Difference which made up the lester Measure 31895 Fath.

In the feventh Triangle HFG. HFG 36. 50. 00. HGF 104. 48. 30. Fath. Fe. FG 12963. 03.

Hence HG 12523. 00. In the eighth Triangle HGI. HGI 31. 50. 30. HIG 43. 29. 30. Fath. Fe. HG 12523. 00. Hence GI 17562. 00. And H I 9570. 00.

In the ninth Triangle HIK. HIK 49. 20. 30. HKI 53. 06. 40. Fath. Fe. HI 9570. 00. Hence IK 11683. 00.

In the tenth Triangle IKL. LIK 58. 31. 30. IKL 58. 31. 00. Fath.

Fath. Fe.

IK 11683. 00.
Hence KL 11188. 02.
And IL 11186. 03.

In the eleventh Triangle KLM.

LKM 28. 52. 30.

KML 63. 31. 00.

Fath. Fe.

KL 11188. 02.

Hence LM 6036. 02.

If the Sum of the three Angles ILK, KLM, MLN. be taken from 360 Degrees, there will remain the Angle ILN 119 degr. 32 min. 40 fec.

In the 12th Triangle LMN.

LMN 60. 38. 00.

MNL 29. 28. 20.

Fath. Fe.

LM 6036. 02.

Hence LN 10690. 00.

In the 13th Triangle ILN.

ILN 32. 40.

Fath. Fe.

LN 10691. 00.

IL 11186. 04.

IN 18905. 00.

Here are found three Parts of the Space intercepted between the two Places E and N, viz. EG, GI, 1N, not exactly in the Meridian Line it felf Na; but so as the Meridional Distances may be found by the following Operations. Also after they had found the Length of GI and IN by another Series of Triangles, as they had done before in the Line GE, they proposed to measure a new straight Line RS (and found it to be 3902 Fath.) by which the Measures of the a-

Fath. Fe. forefaid Lines might be verified and so be a Poundation to them in their proceeding to the 1186. 03. Point Q.

Hence were found the Lines { ML 6037. IN 18907. IG 17564.

In the 14th Triangle LMO.

LMO 58. 21. 50.

MOL 68. 52. 30.

Fath. Fe.

ML 6037. 00.

Hence LO 5510. 03.

In the 15th Triangle N O L.

N O L 115. 01. 30.

ON L 27. 50. 30.

Fath. Fe.

L O 5510. 03.

Hence N O 7122. 02.

In the 16th Triangle N O P.

N P O 72. 25. 40.
P N O 67. 21. 40.
Fatb. Fe.

N O 7122. 04.
N P 4822. 04.

In the 17th Triangle NPQ.

NPQ 83. 58. 40.

PNQ 70. 34. 30.

Fath. Fr.

NP 4822. 04.

NQ 11161. 04.

Therefore they had got the Lines (Q.N. 11161. 4. N.I. 18907. 0. I.G. 17564. 0. G.£. 31895. 0.

But before they could actually fet upon measuring the Earth, all these were to be referred to the Meridian Line  $\alpha \beta$  passing thro' the Point N, that these Lines following might be known, viz.

 $\begin{array}{c} N \beta \\ N \gamma \\ I \ell \text{ or } \gamma \beta \\ G \epsilon \text{ or } \delta \alpha \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{answer-} \\ \text{lines.} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} Q N \\ N I \\ I G \\ G E \end{array}$ 

of which the Line Bz is compounded, shewing the Distance between Q B and as, Parallels of Latitude of the Places Q and E. For this being found, and an Arch of the Meridian intercepted between the fame Parallels being known, they had in Effect obtained their Defire, viz. the Measure agreeing to a known Part of the Periphery of the Earth.

Let therefore BN y Sa, IA, Ge be Parts of the Meridian Circle, paffing thro' the Places N, I, G; also QB, Iz, GJ, and a E & Parallels of Latitude passing perpendicularly thro' those Meridians in the Places QIGE.

Then in the Triangle Q & N rightangled at β, the Inclination of the Line Q N to the Meridian Line N B is obser-

ved, viz.

The Angle QN B 18°. 55' Fath. Fe. And the Line NQ is 11161. 4. Hence NB 10559. 3.

In the Triangle N 2 I, rectangled at y, 2 NI 2°. 9' 10".

> Fath. Fe. IN 18907. o.

Hence N 2 18893. 3.

In the Triangle G I &, rectangled at 0, GIO 1. 9. 0. Fath. Fe. IG 17564. o.

Hence I 0, or 2 8 17560. 3.

In the Triangle GE &, rectangled at &,

EG & 00. 26. 00. Fath. Fe.

GE 31895. O.

Hence G &, or & a 31894. 0.

Hence the Distance between the Parallels of the Places N and E, viz. the Sum of the three Lines, Ny, yo, Sa, is 68348 Fathems; to which if the Line N B be added, it will make up the Distance between the Parallels of the Places Q and E 78907 Fath. 3.

Then it remained to observe the Difference of Latitude of the Places E, N, and Q; or the Arches of the Meridian intercepted between their Parallels. To which end there were taken three Stations, a little distance from the Places themselves; for the sake of better Observation.

The first Station was distant from the Place E 18 Fathoms Southward; the fecond from the Place N 65 Fathoms Northward; the third from the Place Q 75 Fathoms Eastward.

The Arch of the Meridian intercepted between the first and fecond Station was found to be 1°. 11'. 57". between the fecond and third was 122.

35.

But if 83 Fath. (the Sum of 18 and 65, by which the first and fecond Station were further than the Place N and E) be added to 68.348 (that is to the Line Na the Distance between the Parallels of the two Places N and E) the Sum will be 68.434

68.431 Fath. (the Distance between the Parallels of the first and second Station) which is equal to an Arch of 1° 11′ 57″. 'Therefore the Length of 1 Degr. is 57064 Fath. 3 Feet.

Also if 57 Fath. (the Difference between 75 and 18) be substracted from 78907 Fath. 3 Feet (the Distance between the Parallels of the Places Q and E) the Remainder will be 78.850 Fath. 3 Feet. (the Distance between the Parallels of the first and third Station) which agrees to the Arch of 1°. 22′. 55″. Hence 1 Degree is 57.057 Fathoms.

Therefore there was taken for 1 degr. 57.060 Fath. an intermediate Number betwixt

these two.

Thus with great Labour they acquired the Measure of 1 Degr. of the Periphery of the Earth as accurately as possible. Nevertheless it is to be confessed, the Difficulty of making Observations (especially those about the Latitude of the Place) was fo great, that it really baffled the profound Endeavours of the diligent Observers. And tho' the Instrument was exquisitely divided, and of 10 Foot Radius, yet they could not avoid an Error of 2 Seconds, which on the Earth make 22 Fathoms; by which the observed Latitude of each Place might be wrong.

Since this Error could not be avoided, it was thought necessary to measure a greater Space, fo that it might be divided among more Degrees, by which means a lesser Portion of it would fall to any one.

This the famous Callivie Te Ged a few Years ago, at the Command of the most Christian King, as he was marking a Mendian for the Observatory at Paris, thro' the South Provinces of France. He then measured with the same Care all that Space between Paris and the Pyrenean Mountains; between Malvofine and Amiens be added, they make 71 Degr. Hence the Measure of the Earth is procured more accurately, and concluded on more fafely, than from the former Observations only. And by this Mensuration he found 1 Deer. to make \$7.292 Fath. which by the former was computed to be 57.060 Fath.

Monsieur l'Abbé Bignon tells us, that the same Meridian would have been objeved round the whole World by Monsieur de Chafel (a Person of great Courage and Experience) with the same Exactness as it was begun; but that the War was at that Time every where unfortunately kindled, wherehy we are deprived of a more accurate

Measure.

But to proceed. The fame Cassini, by comparing the several Degrees in the aforestid Space, thought himself to have found that there was no certain and determinate Measure to a Degree; but that one furpassed another continually towards the Equator by almost an 800th Part. So that to a Degree northward from the Observatory of Paris there were found 57.055 Degr. and to the next Degree Southward of

E 4 it

it 57.126 which is more by 711. See Hift. Acad. Scien.

1701.

But by what we faid above, about the Figure of the Earth, in our Notes upon the third Chapter, itappears there is forme fmall Difference between one Degree and another; which can farcely be perceived by meer Observation. Tho' this Increase

is not towards the South, as Caffini thought, but to the North. Nevertheless, because France is almost an Intermediate between the Pole and the Equator; the Degrees there will be in a Medium betwixt the least at the Equator and the greatest at the Pole.

According to the aforefaid

Dimensions,

One Degree of the Circumference of the Earth contains Paris Feet 343752 French Leagues each 2000 Fath. 28323 36669 English Miles each 5280 Feet 69,283 Lowdon Rhinland 356117 Rhinland Miles each 18000 Feet 1914117

The Periphers of the Earth contains Paris Feet - - - 123,50720 French Leagues - - - 1031214 London Feet ---- 132000763 English Miles ---- 2500036 Rivinland Feet --- 128202185 Rkinland Miles --- 712255

The Diameter of the Earth contains Paris Feet ---- 39391077 French Leagues -- 3282 23 19 London Feet - - - 42017149 English Miles ---- 7957523 Rhinland Feet --- 40808032 Rhinland Miles -- 226718300

-								
17	French	English	Kend.	- 1	Si	Iren.	Eng.	Rhin.
111.		Feet	Feet		ec.		Feet	
7	5725	6111	5935		1	95	ICZ	99
2	11456	12222	11871		2	191	204.	198
3	1718:	18333	17800		3	286	306	297
	22917	24445	23741		4	382	407	396
5	28646	30556	29676		-5	477	509	495
16	34375	36667	35612		6	573	611	594
7		42778	41547		7	668	713	692
8	45834	48889	47482		8	764	815	.791
	51563	55000	53418		9	850	917	89°
IC	57292	61111	59353		10	955	1019	989
12C	114584	122223	118706				2037	
;c	171876	183334	178059		3C	2865	13056	2968
10	229168	244446	237411		+c	3815	1074	3957
			296764					1946
30	343752	366669	356117		100	5729	6111	5935

Jurin's Appendix.

the three following Methods \*. Let PB (Fig. 9.) the Altitude of a Tower or Mountain, be found out by Altimetry; and imagine PS, the furthest Distance from which it may be seen, to be a right Line, as being fo very small a Part of the Earth's Periphery; and the Triangle BPS rectangled. In which having BP and PS given, the Angle PSB may be found; which is equal to the Angle PRS, whose Measure is the Arch SP(b). Therefore as this Arch is to I degr. fo is the Distance PS measured by some known Measure to the Length of 1 degr. in that Measure. For Example, Let the Altitude BP be 480 Paces or 18 part of a German Mile; and let the Distance of P from S, the Point which terminates the Sight, be 40000 Paces, or 10 German Miles. Then by the Problem Cap. 2. fay, As PS 40000 Paces is to 480: fo is the Radius 10000000 to 11904, the Trangent of the Angle BSP, or SRP, or of the Arch SP, which is 41 min. And as 41 min. is to 60: fo is 40000 Paces to 59000; that is, about 15 Miles for 1 Degree.

OR the Semidiameter PR may be found without the Table of Sines, thus; As BP is to PS: fo is PS to PR: Or as 480 is to 40000: fo is 40000 to 3333333 Paces, for the Semidiameter

PR (c).

The fixth, but second Terrestrial, Method without knowing the Distances.

THE same Semidiameter PR (Fig. 9.) may be thus found. Suppose PB to be a high Mountain,

\* The three following Terrestrial Methods, are more to be admired for their Theory, than for any Truth in their Practice. For tho' they be all Geometrically true; yet Refraction and want of Accuracy, intaking the

Height and Horizontal Diftances of Mountains, hinder the Exactness which is required in a Matter of such Nicety.

(b) Euclid. Lib. 6. Prop. 8.

(c) Euclid. Coroll. to Prop. 8. Lib. 6.

or a Tower. If a Tower, it's Altitude may be found by a Plumb-line to be, suppose, 100 Paces: If a Mountain, the Height PB may be known by Altimetry to be, suppose, 480 Paces. Then with a Quadrant at the Top B, find the Angle at the furthest Point of Sight PBS 88 degr. 37 min. wherefore BRS will be 1 degr. 23 min. Let the Sine of 88 degr. 37 min. be taken from the Canon of Sines, and substracted from the Radius 100000000, and then say; As the Remainder is to the Sine of 88 degr. 37 min. so is BP 100 Paces to the Semi-diameter SR in Paces (d).

### The seventh, but third Terrestrial, Method.

THIS Method (Fig. 9.) feems to be more accurate and fitter for Practice, where two Mountains or Eminences are used, whose Distance (without their Altitudes) is found by Longimetry. For Example, Let BP be a Mountain, Tower, or Castle; and let ST be another, whose Distance, suppose, 5 German Miles. First, by a Quadrant (or otherwise) find the Angle BTR 89 degr. 45 min. and on the other Mountain the Angle TBR 89 degr. 55 min. which will make the Angle PRS to be 20 min. because the three Angles T, B, and R, are equal to two right Angles, or 180 degr. Then say as 20 min.: 60 min.:: 5 miles to 15 Miles for 1 Degree (e).

THESE are the chief Methods of measuring the Earth; for by knowing the Measure of 1 degr. the whole Perimeter, Diameter, Superficies, and

Solidity, may be found.

BUT the Perimeter of the Earth, according to Snellius, is 6840 Dutch Miles, or 10260000 Rhinland Perches, or 123120000 Feet. Therefore the

<sup>(</sup>d) See Prop. 14. of Chap. 2. above. (e) Ibid.

Semidi-

CHAP. 4. of Universal Geography.

59

Semidiameter of the Earth is, by the *Prob.* of *Chap.* 2. found to be 1088. Miles, or 1633190 Perches, or 19598300 Feet; and the Superficies 18811353. fquare *Dutch* Miles \*.

A N D the Solidity of the whole is 40956831512

Cubic Miles.

BUT because accounting by German Miles is more common, 15 of which make a Degree, these may be used on this Condition, that 15 of such Miles may equal 19 Holland Miles, or that one Mile may contain 1900 Rhinland Perches, or 22800 Rhinland Feet.

OF fuch Miles the Circumference of the Earth is 5400, the Semidiameter 860, the Superficies 9278181 fquare Miles, and the Solidity 265693384

cubic Miles.

YET the *Italian* Miles are most commodious, 60 of which make a Degr. and a Mile a Minute. Tho' these *Italian* Miles are to be computed such as each of them may contain 475 Rhinland Perches. The Circuit of the Earth in this Measure is 21600 Miles, and it's Semidiameter 3440.

THESE Things being explained, let us next confider why the above-mentioned Measures of feveral Authors differ; and what is wanting in

each.

IN the first Method, these Things are dubious.

1. The Elevation of the Pole might, perhaps, have been taken wrong.

2. It may be doubted whether the Places observed were in the same Meridian or no.

3. Their Distance is not particularly known; nor the Measure which the Arabians then used. So that in this Mensuration these Things are required.

1. The Length of their Mile (accounted)

the Surface, 199,444,201 Miles; and the folid Content, 264,856,000,000 Miles.

<sup>\*</sup> According to our Norwood, and the Famous Cassini, the Measures are thus; the Diameter 7,967,7 English Miles;

counted 4000 Cubits according to Alfraganus) is not well known to us. 2. They do not shew us the Situation of the Places whose Latitude they took; neither can we be certain of their Diligence in taking them. 3. Nor do they tell us by what Method they measured their Distances.

IN Eratosthenes's Mensuration, these Things are to be observed. 1. He did not add 15 min. (for the Angle made by the Sun's apparent Ray x z and the true central Ray) (Fig. 7.) to the Arch found BZ 7 degr. 12 min. 2. He did not prove Syene and Alexandria to lie under the same Meridian. 3. The Termination of Shadows cannot be accurately observed; and also a Style at any other Place within 150 Furlongs of Syene would have been without a Shadow. 4. He took the Distance between Syene and Alexandria from common Computation which is seldom exact; neither do we certainly know the Length of his Furlong.

IN Posidonius's Method these Errors may be objected. 1. He supposed Canopus not to rise above the Horizon of Rhodes; tho' it is known to be elevated two Degrees there: however, he could not be sure it exactly touched it. 2. He determined the Distance between Rhodes and Alexandria by Guess, and computed Voyages. 3. The Length of his Furlong is not truly stated. 4. It may be doubted whether Alexandria and Rhodes

lie under the same Meridian, &c.

IN the Terrestrial Methods there are these Defects. 1. An Error is easily committed in taking the exact Altitude of any Mountain. 2. The extream Point of Vision cannot be exactly determined, by reason of the Refraction and the Weakness of the Sight.

THUS far concerning the Dimensions of the Earth's Perimeter, it's Semidiameter, Superficies, and Solidity; from whence we might compute it's

Solidit

Solidity or Weight: but because it's Parts are of different Gravities and Textures unknown to us, we cannot fo well determine it's Weight but by

Supposition.

IT must be remembered that the Semidiameter of the Earth is the Model of all Celestial Dimenfions, both in determining the Distances of the Planets from the Earth, and from one another, and in computing their Magnitude. Thus we fay, the Sun is diftant from the Earth 1200 Semidiameters, and the Moon 59, &c.

IN Geography, not only the greater Circles, as the Equator, &c. are to be considered, but also the lesser are of Use, that are parallel to the Equator, viz. how many Miles, or Perches, make a Degree in fuch or fuch a Parallel? Therefore we have taken the following Table out of Snellius, and have added to his Measure of a Degree in Perches, the fame in German, Dutch, and Italian Miles.

A Table shewing the Extent of one Degree in the several Parallels.

The Latitude of the Place, or the Distance of each Parallel from the Equator.

	Perches in	Holland	German	Italian	
	1 Degr.	Miles	Miles	Miles	
Deg.		Miles Perch.	Miles Min.	Miles Min.	
Equ.	28500	19	15 0	60	
I	28496	18 1496	14 59	59 59	
2	28483	18 1483	14 59	59 58	
3	28461	18 1461	14 58	59 54	
4	28431	18 1431	14 57	59 51	
5	28392	18 1392	14 56	59 45	
6	28344	18 1344	14 55	59 41	
7	28288	18 1288	14 53	59 34	

Lati-	Perches in	Holland	German	Italian
tude	ı Degr.	Miles	Miles	Miles
Dig.		Miles Perch.	Miles Min.	Miles Min.
8	2822	18 1223	14 51	59 25
9	28149 28061	18 1149 18 1067	14 48 14 46	59 16 59 6
11	27976	18 976	14 43	58 55
12	27877	18 877	14 40	58 42
13	27769	18 769	14 37	58 29
14	27653 27526	18 653 18 529	14 33	58 14 57 58
16	27396	18 396	14 25	57 42
17	27255	18 255	14 21	57 24
18 19	27105 26947	18 105	14 16	57 4 56 44
20	26781	17 1281	14 6	56 24
21	26t07	17 1107	14 0	56 0
22 23	26425 26234	17 925 17 734	13 54 13 48	55 36 55 12
24	26036	17 536	13 42	54 48
25	25830	17 330	13 36	54 24
26	25616	17 116	13 29	54 0
27 28	25394 25164	16 1394 16 1164	13 22 15 15	53 28 53 0
29	24927	16 927	13 7	52 28
30	24681	16 681	13 59	51 96
31	24429 24169	16 429 16 169	12 51	51 24 50 52
32	23902	15 1402	12 43 12 35	50 52 50 20
34	23628	15 1128	12 26	49 44
35	23346	15 846	12 17	49 8
36 37	23057 22761	15 557 15 261	12 8 11 59	48 32 47 56
38	22458	14 1458	11 49	47 16
39	22149	14 1149	11 39	46 39
40	21832	14 832	11 29	46 0
41 42	21509	14 509 14 180	11 19	45 16
43	20843	13 1343	10 58	43 52
44	20501	13 1001	10 47	43 8
45	20152		10 36	42 24
47	19798	13 298	10 25	41 40
48	19070	12 1070	10 2	40 8

	_		0 1	
Lati ude.	Perches in 1 Degr.	Holland Miles	German Miles	Italian Miles
Deg.		Miles Perch.	Miles Min.	Miles Min.
49	18678	12 698	9 50	39 20
50	18319	12 319	9 38	38 32
51	17936	11 1.436	9 217	37 44
52	17546	11 1046	9 14	37 0
53	17152	11 652	9 2 8 49	36 8 35 26
54	16752 16347	11 252	8 49 8 36	35 26
56	15937	10 937	8 23	33 32
57	15522	10 522	8 10	32 40
58	15103	10 103	7 57	31 48
59	14679	9 1179	7 44	31 0
60	14250	9 750	7 30	30 0
62	13817	9 317 8 1330	7 16	29 4 28 8
63	12939	8 939	7 2 6 48	25 5
64	12494	8 494	6 34	26 16
65	12015	8 45	6 20	25 20
66	11592	7 1092	6 6	24 24
67	11136	7 639	5 52	23 28
68	10676	7 176 6 1213	5 38 5 23	22 32
70	9748	6 748	5 23 5 8	20 32
71	9279	6 279	4 53	19 32
72	8807	5 1307	4 38	18 32
73	8333	5 933	4 23	17 32
74	7846	5 3+6	4 8	10 32
75	7376	4 1376	3 53	15 32
76 77	6895 6411	4 895 4 411	3 38 3 23	14 32
78	5925	3 1425	3 8	12 32
79	5438	3 938	2 5 2	11 28
80	4949	3 440	2 36	10 24
81	4458	2 1458	2 20	9 20
82	3966	2 565 2 473	2 5	S 20
84	3473 2979	1 1479	1 50 1 34	7 20
85	2484	1 984	1 18	5 12
86	1988	1 488	1 3	4 12
87	1492	0 1492	0 47	3 12
88	995	0 991	0 31	2 4
89	497	0 498	0 10	1 4
- 90	· ·			1 0 0



#### CHAP. V.

# Of the Motion of the Earth.

HE Pythagorean Motion or Circumvolution of the Earth (not a Nutation or Quaking) is according to the Copernicans the Cause of most of the Changes in the Celestial Appearances, which would otherwise be constantly the same in every Place (a). Tho' indeed there is not any Property of

(a) This System was not invented by Pythagoras, as some imagine, for Diogenes Laërtius expressly saith, that Pythagoras's Opinion was, That the World was round, containing the Earth in the middle of it; and that Philblaus, the Pythagorean, was the first that said the Earth moved in a Circle: But some say Hercetas the Syracufian. Derham's Astro-Theology.

Pythagoras, who lived in Society with the Egyptian Priests seven Years, and was initiated into their Religion, carried home from thence, besides several Geometrical Inventions, the true System of the Universe, and was the first that taught in Greece, that the Earth and Planets turned round the Sun, which was immoveable in the Center; and that the Diurnal Motion of the Sun and fixed Stars, was not real but ap-

parent, arifing from the Motion of the Earth round it's Axis.

The next Perfon who made a confiderable Figure this way, was Ptolemy with his Cycles, Epicycles, and Eccentrics, he quite burthened Nature, and his Hypothefis shews too much of Art; these are all now exploded, and his folid Spheres broke to pieces; he left behind him a Work entitled Almagest, or the great Construction, which was founded on the Observations of Hipparchus.

Copernicus had the Honour to restore the ancient Pythagorean System, notwithstanding the Preposition the Ptolemaic had gained in the World.

To these succeeded the Noble Dane, Tycho Brahe, whose Hypothesis in a great Measure is compounded of the other two, and seems designed to account

101

of the Earth fo much disputed against and cavilled at as this; fo as even not long ago to have undergone the Censure of the Romish Church. However, because it seems very probable to many that there is fuch a Motion, we shall endeavour to explain it.

IT is known to all, even the Vulgar, that the Sun, Moon, and Stars, appear to move from East to West, and to return to almost the same Places again in the Heavens, in the Space of twenty four Hours. So that either they must really move, or we our felves be moved; and attribute our Motion to them. For it is a felf-evident Principle, that if two Things change their Distance from one another, one of them, at least, must have moved.

THAT the Earth is fixed, or at Rest, and the Stars with the Heavens in Motion, was a common Opinion; and is fo still among those that are accounted Ptolemaic Astronomers: But the Pythagoreans of old maintained, that the Stars constantly kept their Places; and that the Earth was revolved about it's Center. Of which Sect was the celebrated Aristarchus of Samos; who, for defending this Opinion, was, by his Enemy and Adverfary, accused, before the Bench of the Areopagites, of having violated the Laws of Religion; but was fortunately absolved by them\*. Afterwards, but

for the difficulties of both of them, and fo is liable to feveral Objections in them both. He was very skillful in observing, and in the Furniture of his Observatory exceeded even Princes and Kings.

John Kepler, the last I shall mention, by the help of Tycho's Labours, found out the Laws

VOL. I.

the Celestial Bodies observe in their Motion, and laid the Ground-work of the Modern Philosophy. Thus I have given a short Sketch of the Rife and Perfection of this Science.

\* The Great Galileo, the Modern Affertor of the same Doctrine, met with the fate of the ancient Samian Philosopher;

very few affented to this Opinion; fo that it lay hid, or, as it were, buried in Oblivion for many Ages; infomuch that we find not the least mention of it in the Schools, till the famous Astronomer Copernicus, about 200 Years ago, brought it again into Estimation, and backed it with several Arguments, fo that many excellent Astronomers after him embraced it; among whom flourished not long fince the great Kepler, Professor of Mathematics to the Emperor; and Galilaro an Italian, Mathematician to the great Duke of Tuscany; as also

Lansberg a Dutchman.

AND whereas we observe two apparent Motions in the Heavenly Bodies (one by which all the Stars both fixed and wandering feem be carried about the Earth, and to rife to the Meridian. and fet under the Horizon nearly in the same or equal Times: The other, which is called their Annual Motion; by which the Planets with different Motions, and the fixed Stars with equal Velocity, are carried the contrary Way from West to East) the Ptolemaics affirm both these Motions to be in the Stars themselves, or in their Orbs; But the Copernicans attribute this first apparent Motion to that real one of the Earth, not in being transferred from one Place to another, but to it's Rotation about it's Axis from West to East, while it continues still in it's own Place (which causeth the apparent Motion of all the Stars the contrary way). And they also free the Sun and the fixed Stars from the aforefaid annual Motion, by attri-

He was brought before the Inquifition, and obliged folemnly to abjure his Aftronomical Tenets, that the Sun stood immovable in the midst of the Universe, and that the Earth moved round it, as about it's

proper Center. The poor Man was forced to fay, that he did, with a fincere Heart, and Faith unfeigned, abjure, curfe, and detest, the aforesaid Errors and Herefies.

buting the apparent Motion of these to the real annual Motion of the Earth round the Sun; and to the Inclination of it's Axis: Notwithstanding they assign this said annual Motion to the rest of the Planets; only they deny the Sun to be a Planet, and advance him to the Center of the System, where Ptolemy had placed the Earth; and make the rest of the Planets, Saturn, Jupiter, Mars, the Earth, Venus, and Mercury, revolve round him.

THE Reasons for the Copernican Hypothesis are these.

- 1. THE Motion of the Earth round it's Axis, continuing in the fame Place, will best account for the Appearance of such a vast Number of Stars, which seem to perform their Revolutions round the Earth in 24 Hours; and therefore this Motion is most agreeable to Reason: As it happens with us when we sit in a Ship, sailing towards others at Rest in the Harbour; tho' they seem to approach and come nearer us, yet we do not assign that to any Motion in them. And as Nature never performs that by many means which may be done by a few; it is very likely the same Rule is observed here.
- 2. THE Motion of the Stars would thus be incredibly fwift and beyond all Imagination; because their Distance, in Respect of us, is almost infinite, and the Orbit they have to run round so prodigiously great, that they must move at least 100,000 Miles in a Minute: On the other hand, if this Motion be assigned to the Earth, we need not introduce a progressive Celerity; for the she remains still in the same part of Space, she solves the Phænomena by revolving about her Axis.

3. THIS Argument is the stronger if we compare the vast Bulk of the Celestial Bodies with the Bulk of the Earth. For as the Sun is at least 200

F 2

times bigger than the Earth, and some of the fixed Stars 1000 times; it is much more probable, that the Earth revolves round it's Axis with an eafy natural Motion, than that fuch vast Bodies should move from one Place to another with incredible Swiftness.

- 4. THE most celebrated Astronomers are, with Tycho, forced, by the Phænomena, to deny that there are folid Orbs, fuch as the Ancients made use of, the better to explain their imaginary Motion of the Stars; hence their Arguments for this diurnal Rotation about the Earth, are less cogent. The Reason why they are forced to deny this, is, because that one Planet is often seen within the Orb of another; which must cause a mutual Penetration.
- 5. NO Reason can be given why the Stars should move round the Earth: But on the other hand, it is most agreeable to Reason, that the Earth, and the rest of the Planets, should move about the Sun.
- 6. NEITHER the Pole nor the Axis about which the Stars are supposed to revolve, is real: On the contrary, there is a known Pole and Axis in the Earth.
- 7. FOR this Reason also Navigation is much easier from West to East than the contrary Way. For they can fail from Europe to India in about four Months; but can scarce return in six Months: because in their going they move to the same Point with the Earth; but in their returning they steer contrary to the Earth's Motion.

8. BECAUSE the Celestial Phanomena, such as the rifing and fetting of the Stars, the Inequality of Days, &c. cannot be accounted for, by any other Motion than that of the Earth. And the Commodiousness and Necessity of this Hypothesis, is more particularly perceived in the wonderful Ap-

pearances of the Planets; for explaining of which the Ptolemaics are forced to suppose several unnecesfary interfering Circles, Epicycles, and Eccentrics, without any Reason: Whereas the Copernicans can naturally account for them all, (without any previous Suppositions,) by the annual Motion of the Earth, or it's Revolution round the Sun, viz. 1. Why the Planets feem fometimes retrograde; and why Saturn is oftener and continues longer fo than Jupiter; and Jupiter oftener and longer fo than Mars, &c. and also why they are carried fometimes with a fwifter Motion, and at other times appear stationary. 2. Why Mercury and Venus can never be feen a whole Night together. 3. Why Venus is never carried further from the Sun than 48 degr. and Mercury never more than 28; and fo can never be feen in Opposition to the Sun. 4. Why Venus may be feen in the Evening after the Sun is fet; and the next day in the Morning before the Sun rifes, &c.

I FORBEAR to mention any more Phænomena, (these being the principal from whence a solid Argument may be drawn for the Motion of the Earth) since they are all easily and naturally accounted for upon this Hypothesis; so that it would be strange if the Earth should not move, when such evident Appearances require such a Motion. And tho' these Arguments are not demonstrative, yet they render this Hypothesis preserable to the other, which supposeth the Motion of the Heavens. And we must admit of the one or

the other.

BUT the Arguments which some alledge to the contrary are easily answered; such as, 1. The Earth is not sit for Motion, because of it's Gravity. 2. The Parts of the Earth naturally tend in a right Line to the Center; and therefore a circular Motion is against Nature. 3. If the Earth

were moved, a Stone dropped from the Top of a Tower would not fall just at the Foot of it. 4. A Ball shot from a Cannon Eastward at a Mark, could not come home to it, if the Mark with the whole Earth did at the same Time move towards the East: or at least would hit the Mark sooner when shot towards the West. Also a Bird flying towards the East would be retarded: but forwarded in flying the contrary Way. 5. Towers and Buildings could not ftand upright, but would fall: and Men, by the quick Rotation, would become giddy. 6. Because (say they) the Stars are observed to change their Places, but not the Earth. 7. Because the Earth is in the Center of the World; but the Center of any Thing is not moved. 8. Because the holy Scriptures confirm the Stability of the Earth.

TO all which the Copernicans answer thus. To the first, that the whole Earth, taken together, is not absolutely heavy. For Gravity consists in the Tendency of the homogenous Parts to the whole; and tho' this kind of Gravity be found in the Sun and Moon, they are nevertheless not accounted weighty.

TO the fecond they answer, that the circular Motion of the whole does in no wife hinder the relative Motion of the Parts, which are moved in a direct Line towards the Center; as appears

by the Parts of the Sun and Moon.

TO the third they answer three ways, 1. That heavy Bodies are not carried directly toward the Center of the Earth, but in the shortest Lines possible to it's Superficies; which are those parallel to the Tower; as Iron does not tend to the Center of the Loadstone, but to the Loadstone itself.

2. The whole Atmosphere adheres to the Earth, and is moved along with it: therefore when Bodies are thus let fall, they partake of this circular

Motion, and are carried downwards as it were in a Vessel. 3. Gassendus, by repeated Experiments, found, that if a Body be projected from another Body in Motion, it will partake of the Motion of that other Body; as a Stone dropped from the Top of a Mast, while the Ship is in a very swift Motion, is not left by the Ship but falls at the Foot of the Mast. Also a Ball shot perpendicularly from the Foot of the Mast falls in the very same Place. Therefore the Objection is of no Force.

T O the fourth they answer as to the third.

THE fifth Objection hath no Place, because the Motion of the Earth is even and uniform, without dashing or striking against any other Body; and the Buildings being heavy Bodies, and homogeneous to the Earth, are moved as if they were in a Ship; which tho' it sails either swiftly or slowly, yet if the Motion be even and steady without Waves and on smooth Water, Bodies set upright will not be overturned, nor a Glass of Wine be spilt.

TO the fixth we answer, that we are not sensible of any Change of Place in the Stars, only of their Situation in Respect of our selves; which may appear and really be, whether we with the Earth, or the Stars themselves are moved; or even tho' both we and the Stars should be in Motion (b).

the Top T, in the fame Time that the Ship moves from M to D. From the Conjunction of these two Forces (MT the Projection, and MD the Ship's Motion) it is manifest, by the known Laws of Motion, that the body will not be carried perpendicularly to the place T, but in the Diagonal Line F 4.

<sup>(</sup>b) Most of these Objections are answered by the Laws of Mechanics, thus: Let W, E be the Line of Motion of a Ship from W to E, representing the Motion of the Earth from West to East. Let MT (in Fig. 9) be a Mast, from the Foot of which, M, suppose a Body to be thrown perpendicularly to

IN the feventh Objection both the Affertions are false; or, at least, doubtful.

TO

MB, fo as to accompany the Mast in it's Motion from MT to BD. Then suppose the Body to fall from the top of the Mast B, to the foot D, in the same Time the Ship moves from D to G; and it is plain, that, by the mutual acting of B D, the centripetal Force, and BF = DG, the Ship's Motion, the Body will fall in the diagonal Line BG, and also accompany the Mast in it's Motion from D to G; to that tho' it was really carried in the Lines MB, BG, yet it will feem to have moved, only upwards and downwards, parallel to the Line FG.

Also (in Fig. 10.) let MT be the fame Mait, and suppose a Projectile to be cast eastward from the Stern S, to the top of the Mast T, in the Time the Ship moves also eastward from M to D; then will it's Motion upwards describe the Diagonal SB; where let it be obstructed so as to seem to fall perpendicularly to D, in the Fime the Ship moves from D to G; then, as before, it will describe the Diagonal BG, tho' it feemed to move upwards only in the Line TS, and downwards in FG.

So (in Fig. 11.) if a Body be projected westward from the Head of the Ship H to the top of the Mast T, in the time it moves eastward, HG equal to the Distance MH, then will it's Motion upwards describe

the perpendicular Line HB. And if in the fame time it feems to descend from B to H that the Mast moves HG  $\rightleftharpoons$  G  $b \rightleftharpoons$  MH, it's Motion downwards will describe the Diagonal BG. So that, in this Case, it ascends by a perpendicular Line, and falls by an inclining Line; tho' it seemed to ascend by the inclined Line b F, and to fall by the perpendicular Line FG.

Hence it is plain that bodies may appear to have a Motion, directly contrary to their real and abfolute Motion: fo that it is pleafant to conceive, how fallly we may judge of the Motion of Bodies by their unequal Diffance from us; not confidering that we may be infenfibly moved from them.

Hence also is deduced that ingenious Experiment of Galileo, mentioned in Derham's Astro-Theology, as follows.

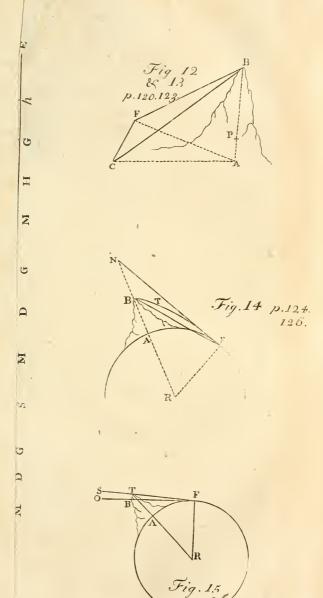
'Shut yourfelf up (fays he)

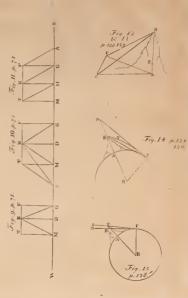
with your Friend in the great
Cabin of a Ship, together
with a Parcel of Gnats and
Flies, and other little winged
Creatures. Procure also a
great Tub of Water, and put
Fishes therein. Hang also a
Bottle of Water up to empty
itself, drop by drop into ano-

ther fuch Bottle placed underneath with a narrow Neck.
Whilft the Ship lies ftill, diligently observe how these
little winged Creatures fly

with the like swiftness to eve-

ry





TO the eighth is answered, 1. The holy Scriptures, in physical matters, always speak according to Appearances, and the Capacity of the Vulgar; as where the Moon is said to be a great Light created to give Light in the Night (c): tho' the Moon

ry Part of the Cabin; how ' the Fishes swim indifferently towards all Sides; and how ' the descending Drops all fall ' into the Bottle underneath. ' And if you throw any thing ' to your Friend you need use on more Force one way than ' another; provided the Diflances be equal. And if you ' leap, you will reach as far one way as the other. Having observed these Particulars whilst the Ship lies still, ' make the Ship to fail with ' what Velocity you please; and fo long as the motion is uniform, not fluctuating this ' Way and that Way, you shall ' not perceive there is any Al-' teration in the aforesaid Ef-' fects; neither can you from ' them conclude whether the Ship moveth or standeth still. But in leaping you shall reach as far on the Floor as you did before; nor by any Reason " of the Ship's Motion shall you ' make a longer leap towards the Poop than the Prow; ' notwithstanding that whilst ' you are up in the Air, the ' Floor under your Feet had ' run the contrary Way to ' your Leap. And if you cast any thing to your Compa-' nion, you need use no more Strength to make it reach ' him, if he should be towards the Prow and you towards

the Poop, than if you flood in a contrary Polition. The ' Drops shall all fall into the ' Bottle that is lower; and not one towards the Poop, al-' tho' the Ship shall have run ' many Feet, whilst the Drop ' was in the Air. The Fishes ' in the Water shall have no more trouble in fwimming towards the fore part of the ' Tub, than towards the hin-' der Part; but shall make to the Bait with equal fwiftness on any fide of the Tub. · And lattly the Gnats and Flies fhall continue their Flight in-' differently towards all Parts, and never be driven together ' towards the Side of the Ca-' bin next the Prow; as if ' wearied with following the ' fwift Motion of the Ship. ' And if by burning a few ' Grains of Incense you make 'a little Smoak; you shall ' perceive it to ascend on high, ' and hang like a Cloud, mov-' ing indifferently this Way or ' that, without any Inclination ' to one Side more than another.' All which Observations depend upon the aforesaid Laws of Mechanics; and fufficiently answer the most considerable Objections, deduced from Philosophy, against the Motion of the Earth.

be not great in Respect of the Earth and fixed Stars, nor hath any Light in itself; neither doth it give Light to the Earth every Night. Thus the Sun is said to go forth from the End of the Heavens, and to baste to it again (d); whereas in Truth there is no fuch End to be found. So in the Book of 70b (e), the Earth is faid to be of a plane and fquare Figure, underpropped and supported with Pillars; which is not to be understood in a literal Sense, as even the most ignorant may perceive (f):

(d) Pfal. xix. 6. Eccles. i.

15.

(e) Job ix. 6. xxviii. 24. (f) Befides, Things are often spoke of as they appear, not as they really are. For as St Hierom fays (upon the thirteenth Chapter of St Matthew) It is the Custom of the Scriptures, for the Historian to relate the Opinion Men had of many Matters, as at that time those Matters were by all People taken to be. And in another Place. There are many Things in the Holy Scriptures, which are froken according to the Opinion of the time in which they were done; and not ac ording to Reality. And we flould find very abfurd Conclusions would follow the taking of these Texts in a literal scnse. For in 70-Abua x. 12, 13. the Sun is ordered to fland still upon mount Gibeon, and the Moon in the valle, of Ajalon. But it would be very abfurd to take this in a strict literal fense, and imagine those two great Luminaries were confined to those two Placer, otherwise than in Appearance to the victorious Ifrac-

lites. And if so considerable a Part of the Transanction be fpoken according to it's Appearance, why may not the whole? Why might not this Station as well be an Arrest of the Earth's Motion, as that of the Heavens? If the whole Miracle was not (as fome not improbably think) effected by Means of fome preternatural Refractions, or extraordinary Meteors, &c. And fo for the Recess of the Sun, or it's Shadow in Hezekiah's Cafe (2 Kings xx. 10. and I/a. xxxviii. 8.) which in appearance feemed to be the Sun, is, by divers learned Men, thought to have been the effect of fuch like extraordinary Refractions or Meteors, as mentioned in the last Case: Or if it was a real Regress, why not of the Earth rather than the Sun and whole Heavens? See Derham's Aftro-Theol. Befides, Historiographers seldom confine themselves to a Geometrical or Astronomical nicety in their Descriptions of Things. As, in 1 Kings vii. 23. it is written, that Solomon made a molten fea, ten cubits from one

More Places might be quoted, but these are sufficient; for the holy Scriptures were not given us to philosophize by, but to increase our Piety.

2. Some Places of Scripture are also produced, which do not speak of the Mobility of the Earth, but of it's Stability and Permanency; as that in Job

aforesaid (g).

THUS we have declared in brief what that Motion is, which the Copernicans assign to the Earth; the more full and accurate Explication of which belongs to Astronomy. And this Motion being supposed, all the Phænomea we observe in a Globe revolved about it's Axis, must be applied to the Earth, viz. That the Axis, upon which it is turned, is one of the Diameters: That the Poles are two immoveable Points in the Extremities of the Axis: That the great Circle, or Perimeter, in which the Rotation is made, is the Equator with it's Parallels, &c.

LET us now confider the Velocity of the Earth's Motion; which, in that about it's Axis, is not over all the Earth equal, but different according to the Diffance from the Equator; being there

brim to the other, round all about, and a line of thirty cubits did compass it round about. But as 7:22::10:31\frac{3}{7} Cubits is very near the true Length of the Line that ought to encompass a round Vessel of ten Cubits Diameter.

(g) Such as *Pfal.* xciii. 1. cxix. 90. civ. 5. *Ecclef.* i. 4. and 1 *Chron.* xvi. 30. which Texts are all underflood by learned Commentators to mean the unalterable Condition, Security, Peace, and Tranquillity, of the Earth.

The Ambit of the Earth, by the most accurate, is appre-

hended to be 25031,4 Miles, which, divided into 24 Hours, makes the Revolution to be at the Rate of about 1043 Miles in an hour; a Rotation that would as eafily throw off the Parts of the Earth, especially the Waters, as the whirling round of a Wheel, or a Globe, would the loofe Duft and Water thereon; but by Reafon the Gravitating Power exceeds the Centrifugal, as 2174 exceeds 754,064, that is, above 288 times; therefore all Parts lie quiet and fecure in their respective Places. Derham's Astro-Theol. p. 149. fwiftest

swiftest as passing thro' a greater Space, and so by Degrees flower towards the Poles, as paffing thro' a less Space in the same Time. Therefore fince every Part of the Earth is moved thro' the Space of it's Periphery (or 360 Degr.) in 24 Hours; the Space of one Hour's Motion is found by dividing 360 by 24, which gives in the Quotient 15 Degr. and fo much doth any Place on the Earth move (whether in the Equator or without it) in an Hour. Also 15 Degr. in the Equator make 125 German Miles, therefore it revolves 15 fuch Miles (or one Degr.) in 4 min, and in one min, 33 Miles.

BUT Places without the Equator, lying towards either Pole, are in the fame Time revolved the same Number of Degrees: but these Degrees are much less than those in the Equator; so that the Celerity of Motion, or Progression, is as the Sines of the Arches by which these Places are distant from the Pole. Example. The Distance from the Equator (or Elevation of the Pole) of Amsterdam is 52 degr. 23 min. therefore the Distance from the Pole (or Complement of Latitude) is 37 degr. 37 min. whose Sine is 61037. Suppose another Place, under the Equinoctial, distant from the Pole 90 Degr. whose Sine also is 100000, but the Place under the Equinoctial moves 15 Miles in 4 min. and 225 an Hour. Therefore by the Golden Rule, as 100000:61037::15:9 Miles, or so is 225 to 137 Miles. So that Amsterdam is carried every Hour 137 Miles, and in 4 min. 9 Miles, by this Motion.

THIS is more eafily found by the foregoing Table; for by dividing 360 by 24 we find each Place to move 15 Degr. of it's own Circle in an Hour, and therefore 1. Degr. in 4 min. &c. confulting the Table with the Latitude of the Place, we find how many Miles it moves in 4 min. For

Example:

Example; The Latitude of Stockholm is about 60 Degr. opposite to which in the Table is  $7\frac{1}{2}$  Miles. Therefore Stockholm revolves so many Miles in 4 min. and such is the first Motion in divers Places.

THE Second Motion of the Earth, it's Change of Place; whereby every Part of it moves the fame Space with the fame Velocity. This Motion is determined by the Distance of the Earth from the Sun, or the Semidiameter of the Orbit in which it performs it's annual Revolution, moving in a

Day about a Degr. and in an Hour 21 min.

AS to the third Motion of the Earth, because it is more difficult to conceive, we shall leave it to Astronomers, who have found it necessary to be supposed. *Origanus* moves a Doubt about the second Motion; and supposes the Earth to be only moved by the first, but the Sun and fixed Stars by the second: Tho' the above-cited Appearances, in the Motions of the Planets, sufficiently confirm this annual Motion (b).

(b) This imaginary third Motion of the Earth they were obliged to suppose, to account for the disputed Inequality of the Declination of the Ecliptic, which is now by most Astronomers thought to be always the same; seeing there is nothing which should disturb the perpetual Parallelism of the Earth, on which this Equality depends, except it should be the insensible Nutation of the Axis,

and the Regress of the Nodes; from which thing nevertheless no Variation of Declination, properly so called, can arise. Whiston's Astron. Lest pag. 57. That there is such a Nutation whereby the Axis of the Earth doth twice incline towards the Ecliptic, and twice return to it's former Position, see in Newton's Prin. Phil. Nat. Book iii. Prop. 21.



### CHAP. VI.

Of the Situation, or Place, of the Earth, in Respect of the Planets and fixed Stars.

HE Situation of the Earth, in the System of the World, in respect to the rest of the Planets, hath fome Relation to the Account we gave of the Earth's Motion, in the preceding Chapter. For it is the general Opinion of the Ptolemaic Astronomers and Philosophers, that the Earth, being the Center of the World, is placed in the middle of the Stars and Planets (a): But the Copernicans, with the antient Pythagoreans, place the Sun in the Center of all the Stars, and make the Earth a Planet performing an annual Revolution about him, between Mars and Venus; as is best understood by a Diagram of the System. Nevertheless they both agree in this, that the Earth may be accounted the apparent Center of the diurnal Motion, by which the Stars seem to be carried about in twenty four Hours. For both Astronomy and Geography require this Supposition; fo that whether we adhere to the Ptolemaic or Copernican Hypothesis, we do not detract from the Certainty of general Astronomy or Geography. Because the Difference of these Opinions consists only in this; that the Ptolemaics will have this Motion to

(a) Since the World, or Universe, is infinite, the central Place of it cannot be determined: What our Author means

by the World here is only our Solar System, in which Sense he must be taken in what sollows, be in the Stars themselves, but the Pythagoreans in the Earth; the Stars in the mean time resting: neither of which need be determined in Geography or common Astronomy.

ACCORDING to the Ptolemaics the Situation of the Earth, in respect of the Planets and fixed Stars, is this; The Earth in the Center, then the Moon, Mercury, Venus, The Sun, Mars, Ju-

piter, Saturn, and the Fixed Stars.

ACCORDING to the Copernicans; The Sun is placed in the Center of the System, as the Heart and Focus of the World; and next him is the Orbit of Mercury, then that of Venus, the Earth, with the Moon, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Fixed Stars.

IF it be required how far distant we are from each of the Planets, we must know that the Distance is not always the same, but continually changing; and therefore Astronomers reckon three Degrees of Distance, viz. the least, greatest, and mean or middle Distance; which last of the Earth, from the rest of the Planets, is as follows, according to most Astronomers (b).

The Earth is distant from 

The Earth is distant from 

The Earth is distant from 

The Sun — 1150 Mars about—5000 fupiter about-11000 Saturn about-18000

NEVERTHELESS the Distance of the Earth from Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the fixed

<sup>(</sup>b) See Note (m) at the end of this Chapter,

Stars, is not so perfectly determined, for want of Certainty in their Parallaxes. Also in the Copernican System the Distance varieth, not only from the Motion of the Planets; but also from the Motion of the Earth itself.

THE Reason for either Opinion, (viz. of the Ptolemaic and Copernican) about the Situation of the Earth, are much the same with those we discussed in the preceding Chapter about the Earth's Motion. For this Dispute is of great Affinity with the former. Because, if the Sun hath an annual Motion, then the Earth and not the Sun possesses the middle Place: But if the Earth so move, the Sun and not the Earth will certainly be in the Center.

THE following Arguments favour the Coper-

nican Hypothesis.

I. THE Sun is not only the glorious Fountain of Light, which, like a clear shining Torch, illuminates the *Earth*, *Moon*, *Venus*, and without doubt, the rest of the *Planets*; but is also the *Focus* of Heat, and the Source of vital Spirits; whereby the whole Universe is subsisted and nourished: and therefore very probably possessible the Center about which they all revolve.

2. IT is more likely that the Earth, with the rest of the Planets, should revolve about the Sun, when they receive Light and Heat from him; than that the Sun should move about the Earth, when

he receives nothing from it.

3. THERE are many Causes why the Sun should possess the middle Place, and the rest of the Planets revolve round him, (especially if we embrace the Hypothesis of Kepler, concerning the Motion of the Planets) the chief of which is, that the Sun, being a vast Body, is moved about it's Axis, and by a strong [Vestory] Force exciteth the Earth

Earth and the rest of the Planets to a circular Mo-

tion (c).

4. THIS Rotation of the Sun about it's Axis is proved from the Observations of the Spots upon it's Surface by Galileo (d), Scheiner, &c. and we may reasonably presume, it is owing to this common Cause that the rest of the Planets revolve about theirs; but we cannot perceive a likelihood of any Motion in this Luminary (e).

5. If

(c) The fagacious Kepler was the Founder of the Newtonian Philosophy: it was he that first found out the true System of the World, and the Laws which the celeftial Bodies observe in their Motions; it was he that determined the true Path of the Earth, and the rest of the Planets about the Sun, and discovered the harmonic Proportions and Concinnities of their Distances and Motions: and tho' he did not demonstrate (and shew a Reason for the Necessity of) such Laws and Proportions; yet he gave a Hint, and laid a Foundation for that Prince of Geometers Sir ISAAC NEWTON, to demonstrate an absolute Necesfity of these Laws; and that without a total Subversion of the Laws of Nature, no other Rule could take Place in the Revolutions of the heavenly Bodies.

(d) He was the first that applied a Telescope to the Heavens, and by it's means discovered a great many new surprizing Phanomena; as the Moons or Satellites of Jupiter, and their Motions; the various VOL. I.

Phases of Saturn; the Increase and Decrease of the Light of Venus; the mountainous and uncertain Surface of the Moon; the Spots of the Sun; and the Revolution of the Sun about it's own Axis; all which were first discovered and observed by this great Philosopher. Keill's Astron. Lect. Pref. pag. 11.

(e) From the later Observations of Astronomers it is manifest to our Sight, that alfo every Heavenly Body we have any good Views of, is turned round fome principal Point, and also it's own Axis, viz. hath the like Annual Revolutions, and Diurnal Motions as those are which we ascribe to the Earth; yea even the more massy Globes of Saturn and Jupiter, which feem not in their own Nature more fitted for fuch Rotations, Wherefore we may certainly conclude, that it is as possible, and as probable, that this our leffer Globe, should perform it's Revolutions according to the fame Law, which is observed in the rest of the Planets, whereby the beautiful Order and Harmony of Motions is

G every

5. IF we suppose the Earth placed betwixt Mars and Venus, and also place the Sun in the Center of the System; the Motion of each of the Planets will be exactly in Proportion to their feveral Distances from that Center: But this will not hold in the Ptolemaic Hypothesis, as is manifest by comparing the Motion of the Sun, Venus, Mercury,

&c. (f).

6. THE Celestial Phanomena, mentioned in the former Chapter, to prove the annual Motion of the Earth, do likewise as effectually prove that this is the right Place in which it ought to be moved, viz. The Retrograde Motion, and feeming Immobility of the Planets, the admirable apparent Motion [and Phases] of Venus and Mercury, &c. (g). For fince the annual Motion of the Earth is presupposed in this Place, or in some other very near it;

every where preferved thro' the

Frame of Nature.

(f) Sir Isaac Newton's Demonstration, That the Squares of the Planets Revolutions are as the Cubes of their Diflances, every where takes place, if the Sun be supposed the Center of the Planets about him; but does not hold at all in Relation to the Earth; for if the Moon revolve round the Earth in (272 Days) a Periodical Month, as it certainly does, the Sun, as being at a greater Distance, will take no less than 54700 Years, according to the aforesaid Law, to make his Revolution about the Earth. But fince this Law, is found to be observed not only in the primary Planets about the Sun, but also in the Secondaries about Jupiter, Saturn, and the Earth, it is an incontestable Argument that the Sun is as much the Center of the Earth and Planets about him, as the Earth is of the Moon.

(g) These Observations, which utterly overthrow the Ptolemaic Hypothesis, are owing to later Aftronomers. For they, by their Glasses, have found out that the spherical Figure of Venus and Mercury, feen from the Earth, will be altered, and have the fame variety of Phases as the Moon hath, viz. will appear opake, horned, bisected, gibbous, and full, at proper Distances from the Sun, as explained upon the Copernican Hypothesis; which certainly establishes and confirms that Order and Situation, namely that Venus and Mercury revolve about the Sun in Orbits that are included within the Earth's Orbit.

this Argument, in my Opinion, is the best to defend it by; since this situation of the Earth cannot be proved immediately from it's diurnal Motion: Because it might possess the Center of the Universe, and have a diurnal Motion, tho' it wanted the annual; as Origanus supposed.

7. BY this Hypothesis likewise, the Variation of the Distance, of the Planets from the Earth is ac-

counted for.

THE Ptolemaics, on the other Hand, oppose the Pythagorean Opinion, and endeavour to prove, that the True Place of the Earth is in the Center of the World, by the following Arguments. 1. That heavy Bodies are all naturally carried towards the Center; but that the Earth is more ponderous than the rest, therefore it ought to reside in the Center (b). 2. Heavy Bodies would recede from the Earth towards the Center of the World, if the Earth itself was not in the Center. 3. The Center is the basest Place, and the Earth the ignoblest Part of the Creation; therefore it ought to be placed in the Center. 4. If the Earth was placed out of the Center of the World, and was not the Center of the Stars and Planets Motion, then would the Stars and Constellations at some Seasons of the Year appear greater than at others (i). 5. The Medium of the Heavens could not always be perceptible, nor would Taurus rise when Scorpio sets. 6. Neither would there be Equinoxes. 7. Nor would the Moon set, nor be eclipsed when the Sun was rifing. 8. Neither could an equal Number of

(b) This Affertion is false: See the Note at the End of this Chapter.

far greater in the middle of their Regresses than in the middle of their Progresses, because the Earth, in their Regresses, comes nearer these Planets an entire Diameter of the Orbis Magnus.

G 2 Miles

<sup>(</sup>i) Tho' this does not hold in the fixed Stars, because of their immense Distance; yet all the superior Planets seem

Miles on the Earth answer to each Degree in the Heavens.

THE Copernicans easily refute these Arguments of the Aristotelians. For the first and second is rejected, because the Motion of heavy Bodies is not towards the Center of the Universe, but towards the Earth, a homogeneous Body; as is proved from the Parts of the Sun and Moon, and of the Lordstone. In the third both the Assumptions are false; for the Centre is an Honourable Place; and the Earth is no ways dishonourable. The rest of the Arguments are eafily difproved by a Description of the System; it being first presupposed that tho' the Earth's Distance from the Sun be very great, yet if compared with the Distance of the fixed Stars, it is fo small, that it hath no Proportion to it; which feems to some a great Postulatum in the Copernican Astronomy (k)

(k) To find this Variation of the Distance of the fixed Stars (arifing from the annual Motion of the Earth, and called their annual Parallax) hath been often attempted by the Copernican Astronomers; be cause that the annual Motion of the Earth would thereby be not only made probable, but certainly demonstrated. This, I fay, was attempted without Success, 'till Dr Hook and Mr Flamfiead, by new invented accurate Instruments, seemed to have found out this annual Parallax to be at least as much again as the double of the Sun's diurnal Parallax, viz. 47 Seconds. But Mr Mohneaux and Mr Bradley, by their late accurate Observations, could not, with all their Skill, determine any fenfible Parallax at all (only they difcovered a feeming new Motion of the fixed Stars, which (allowing the progressive Motion of Light) does in some meafure demonstrate the annual motion of the Earth ). There appearing therefore, after all, no fenfible Parallax in the fixed Stars, the Anti-Copernicans have still room, on that Account, to object against the motion of the Earth. And the Copernicans are still obliged to hold, that the Orbis Magnus, is but a Point in Comparifon of the Distance of the neareft fixed Stars; which is certainly (as our Author observeth) a great Blot in the Copernican Aftronomy, left to be wiped out by future Ages.

IT belongs to this Place to explain this Theorem; that the Diffances of the fixed Stars, and superior Planets, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, are so great from the Earth that it's Semidiameter hath no sensible Proportion thereto; tho' it is not so in the Diffance of the Moon, Mercury, and Venus: And if there is any Proportion between the Earth's Semidiameter, and the Sun's Distance, it is so very simall that we are still not able sensibly to discover

it (l).

THIS Theorem is thus demonstrated. 1. The fixed Stars, and fuperior Planets appear to rife the very fame Moment in our fensible Horizon, that they are found by Calculation to do, if we were at the Center of the Earth; therefore our Distances from the Center (or the Earth's Semidiameter) hath no Proportion to the Distance of the fixed Stars. 2. If we take the Meridian (or other) Altitude of a superior Planet, or any of the fixed Stars, with an Instrument, we find it the same as if we had observed it at the Center of the Earth: Therefore the Semidiameter of the Earth is nothing in respect of their Distance. 3. If there were any fuch Proportion, the Diftance of two fixed Stars would appear less near the Horizon than at the Meridian, where they are nearer the Earth by almost it's Semidiameter.

THIS also is true in the Sun, whose apparent Diameter is not perceived greater in the Meridian

than in the Horizon.

(1) The quantity of the Parallax of Mars is determined, by M. Cassini's and Flamstead's Observations, to have been scarce 30 Sec. when in Opposition to the Sun, and also in his Perihelion; from whence having the true Proportions of the

Distances of the Planets from the Sun, we have, in effect, acquired the Parallax of the Sun itself, and of the rest of the Planets, and also their Diameters and Distances from the Sun and the Earth; of which see the Note at the End of this Chapter,

5. Gravities.

BUT the apparent Diameter of the Moon is found to be somewhat enlarged in the Meridian; because she is there nearer us, than when she is in the Horizon, almost a whole Semidiameter of the Earth (m). CHAP

flances, Periods, Diameters, fame, as Mr Whiston has cal-Gravities, and Quantities of culated them from the latest Matter, in those of the Cele-flial Bodies which have afford-ton's Rules.

(m) Here follow the Di- ed Means for determining the

ftial Bodies which have afford- ton's Rules.
Mercury Venus The Earth Miles, each 5280 Feet Jupiter Saturn  1. Distances.  32.000.000 59.000.000 81.000.000 123.000.000 424.000.000 777.000.000
Mercury Venus The Earth Mars Jupiter Saturn  D. H. M. 87. 23. 16. 224. 17. 49. 365. 6. 9. 686. 23. 27. 4332. 12. 20. 10759. 7. 36.
3. Diameters.
Mercury Venus The Earth Mars Jupiter Saturn The Sun The Moon  Mercury Venus The Earth Mars Jupiter Saturn The Sun The Moon  A240 7906 7935 4444 81155 67870 763460 2175
4. Densities.
The Moon The Earth The Sun Jupiter Saturn  The Moon The Earth The Sun Jupiter Saturn  Contains in Denfity, Parts, 76 60



### CHAP. VII.

# Of the Substance and Constitution of the Earth.

N the preceding Chapters we have considered four general Properties of the Earth, without Regard to it's Substance or Constitution: It will therefore be here proper to consider what kind of Body the Earth is, that we may not be ignorant how it's Parts cleave or are cemented together: which tho' it seem more to belong to Physics; nevertheless because it renders the Knowledge of the Earth more perfect, we shall here briefly discuss it; leaving the accurate Theory thereof to Natural Philosophers.

5. Gravities.
The Moon The Earth The Sun Jupiter Saturn  Contains in Gravity, or quantity of Matter, Parts, $ \begin{array}{c}                                     $
6. The Weight of Bodies on the Surface Saturn is
7. The Time of the Rotation about it's Axis, of the Venus is

### PROPOSITION I.

To shew of what simple or similar Bodies the Earth may confift, or be compounded.

THERE are feveral Opinions of Philosophers concerning this matter. The Peripatetics reckon four Elements in the Earth and the whole Sublunary World. fufficiently known to every one, viz. Fire, Air, Water, and Earth. Many of the Antients, as Democritus, Leucippus, &c. were of Opinion, that the whole World confifted of very fmall folid Particles, which only differed in Magnitude and Shape. Which Opinion is followed by feveral of the Moderns; and some time since, des Cartes endeavoured to account for all the Phœ-

nomena of Nature upon this Hypothesis.

THE Chymists imagine that there are three Principles of Nature, viz. Salt, Sulpbur, and Mercury, to which some reasonably add Caput Mortuum. But there feems to me upon a thorough Confideration of the Matter (to drop all ambiguous terms and quibbles), to be five simple Bodies which are the first Elements or Principles of all things, viz. Water, Oil or Sulphur, Salt, Earth, and a fixed Spirit; which some call an Acid, and is perhaps like the Mereury of the Chymists (a). For it

(a) The illustrious Sir Isaac Newton thus explains the true Principles of Nature. "It feems " probable to me (fays be) that God in the Beginning formed Matter in folid, massy, " hard, impenetrable, moveable Particles, of fuch Sizes and Figures, and with fuch

other properties, and in fuch

' proportion to Space, as most ' conduced to the End for ' which he formed them; and ' that these primitive Particles ' being folid, are incomparably harder than any porcus ' Bodies compounded of them: ' even fo very hard as never to wear or break in pieces: ono ordinary Power being able 19

it is plain that all Bodies, and Parts of the Earth, may be refolved into these five elementary Substances. Nevertheless I do not suppose them to differ so much in their particular Essences, as in the Variety of their several Shapes and Magnitudes.

OF these Bodies, mixed after different manners, is the whole Earth composed; from which proceeds such a surprising Variety in the Nature of Bodies; tho' they are apparently similar (b). But since the more accurate Explication of these things belongs to Physics, we shall say no more to them here; but handle them at large in another Place.

### PROPOSITION II.

The Earth is divided into dry and moist Parts, or into Land and Water; to which some add the Atmosphere.

THIS is the common Division of Geography. But then Water is taken, in a large Sense, for all forts of Liquids and Fluids; and Land for the whole dry and consistent Parts of the Globe: whilst

to divide what God himself e made one in the first Crea-' tion. While the Particles ' continue entire, they may ' compose Bodies of one and ' the fame Nature and Texture ' in all Ages: But should they " wear away, or break in pie-' ces, the Nature of Things depending on them would be 6 changed. Water and Earth composed of old worn Parti-' cles, and Fragments of Particles, would not be of the fame Nature and Texture now, s with Water and Earth composed of entire Particles in

the Beginning. And therefore, that Nature may be flasting, the Changes of Cor-

only in the various Separations, and new Affociations

and Motions of these permanent Particles; compound Bodies being apt to break, not

in the midft of folid Particles, but where those Particles are laid together, and only touch

' in a few Points.' Newton's Optics, Pag. 375.

(b) See the Notes below on

Prop. 6. and 7. of this Chap.

both comprehend various Bodies of Different Natures. To the Earth belong, 1. Sand, Gravel, Clay, and Mineral Earth; also Chalk, Minium, Oker, Terra Sigillata, Earth of Samos, Bole-Armeniac, and feveral other Kinds of Earth. 2. Stones of various forts. 3. Metals; as Gold, Silver, Copper, Tin, Lead, Mercury or Quick-filver, &c. 4. Sulphur, Salt, Nitre, Allum, Bitumen, Vitriol, Antimony, &c. 5. Herbs, Animals, &c.

TO the Water belong, 1. the Ocean and Seas. 2. Rivers and fresh Waters. 3. Lakes and Marshes. 4. Mineral Waters, as Hot Baths, Spaw Waters, &c.

THE Atmosphere is a subtile Body which surrounds the whole Globe of the Earth, and includes the Air, Clouds, and Rain, &c. So that the Earth is best divided into these three Parts.

### PROPOSITION III.

To explain how the Earth and Water cleave one to another; and constitute the Terraqueous Globe.

THE Earth, that is the dry Part of the Globe, is not terminated by an even and fmooth Surface; but is here and there hollowed into Cavities, and in other Places elevated into Protuberances. In the Cavities found all over the Earth is contained the Ocean or Sea; fo that this Part of the superficies of the Earth is covered with Water, and the other Part is raifed and appeareth above the Waters. These Cavities are not depressed into an equal hollowness, but are in some Places rugged and rocky; and in others funk down into Gulphs and Whirl-Pools. Also those Places of the Earth which are raifed above the Waters, have in the middle of them, as it were, certain Navels or Eminences; and some Parts are either raised or depressed more than others. Hence the Water furrounding the whole

whole Globe is hindred from covering the higher Parts which appear above the Surface of the Ocean; and are called *Islands*: Whereof fome are great and others are finall.

BESIDES that continued Cavity or Channel in the Surface of the Earth, there are also within it's Bowels innumerable Openings, Recesses, Fisfures, Chasms, Mazes, Swallows, Water Passages, and vast Receptacles; some of which are filled with falt Water, viz. fuch as are joined by fubterraneous Passages to the Main Ocean; others with fresh Water, Rivers and Brooks; in some also are fulphureous Vapours, and fmoaking Substances. So that Seneca feems to be in the right when he fays, That he trusts too much to his Sight, who does not believe there is a large Quantity of Sea in the bidden Recesses of the Earth. Nor do I perceive why there should not be much Sea Water received by these subterraneous Swallows; and formed into Bays by Banks or Bounds. And from the following Observations we cannot doubt, that there are a great many Cavities in the Bowels of the Earth. For feveral fubterraneous Rivers are found in Places where the Earth is dug to a confiderable Depth; as is common in Mines. 2. The Depth of the Sea is in fome Places unfathomable. 3. There are in feveral Places, Caverns discovered near the Surface of the Earth. Thus in the West part of the Island of Hispaniola, there is a Mountain of a vast Height all hollowed within, into feveral Dens and Openings, in which Rivers rush precipitantly with fuch a violent Torrent and Noise of Waters, that they may be heard at five Miles distance. 4. Several Whirl-Pools are found in the Sea, and called in the Dutch Language Maelstroom. 5. Earthquakes also shew that there are such subterraneous Caverns. 6. Several Rivers hide themselves under the Earth, as the Niger, Tigris, &c. 7. Brackish Fountains

Fountains are observed in several Places, most of which certainly flow from the Sea. 8. In many Places the Ground trembles when People walk upon it, as at the Abby of S. Omer in Flanders; and in the Province of Brabant upon Peel Marish.

#### COROLLARY.

Hence it is evident, that the Opinion of those old Philosophers, who maintained that the Earth at first floated upon the Waters, is false; for by this Means there would be no Channels in the Sea, but it would be every where of an immense Depth. Some indeed of the Antients (especially Democritus) are faid to have been of the following Opinion. viz. the Waters were formerly mixed with the Earth; and that the whole Mass being perfectly spherical, was soft and of an indifferent Confistence betwixt wet and dry: But afterwards when the Particles of Water were gathered into one Body, according to the natural Property observed in Water, the earthly Particles, being separated from the watery, came together and were curdled into Earth and wrought into Chanels by the Water in feveral Places. The fame Hypothelis is embraced by many modern Christian Philosophers, who think these Words of Moses (or rather of GOD delivered to us by Moses) Let the Waters be gathered together into one Place, and let the dry Land appear, ought to be thus understood. But the Fathers of the Primitive Church thought otherwise about this; for they judged that the Waters were separated from the earthy Particles [before the Creation] and covered the Face of the whole Earth; and fo occupied their natural Place; and then miraculoufly receded, and uncovered the Earth by the Power of these Words of Jebovab; and that to this day they are hindred and restrained, by the especial Providence

Providence of God, from flowing back and covering the Face of the whole Earth as before; fo that the present Constitution of the Earth and Sea is by them accounted a perfect Miracle. But that there is no great Occasion to think it so much a Miracle we shall prove in Chap. xiii, where we shall shew, that the Inundation of the Waters, or Ocean, upon the adjacent Land, is hindred by the Altitude and Confittence of the Earth, which if removed by fome certain Causes, whereof there are many, the Ocean will foon overflow the dry Land and cover it: whence there is manifestly, no need of a Miracle in the matter. Neither does the beforementioned Opinion of the Antients want it's Defects; for if the Earth and Water had been once mixed into one Mass; why did not the earthly Particles rather subside, and the Waters, being of less Gravity, cover the whole Earth? This they are forced to ascribe to a fortuitous Motion and Conjunction of the watery and earthy Particles. These things are faid, by the way, to gratify some that earnestly enquire into such matters; tho' they do not fo properly belong to Geography; which hath no Regard to the Opinions of the Antients, nor need fly to Miracles in explaining the Properties of the Earth (c).

### PROPOSITION IV.

The Superficies of the Earth is continued, but not that of the Waters.

THE Superficies of that Part of the Earth which is raifed above the Waters, is continued to the Superficies of the Chanel of the Sea, and that again to other elevated Parts of the Earth. Also

<sup>(</sup>c) See Dr Woodward's Essay towards a Natural History of the Earth, &c.

the Ocean, Bays and Rivers have one continued Superficies; but all Waters have not, for there are some Lakes whose Superficies are not joined with that of the Ocean, as the Lake Parime, and the Caspian Sea, &c.

## PROPOSITION V.

The Constitution of the Earth, far within the Surface (which is our Habitation) towards the Center. is uncertain.

SOME think that Water taketh up the lowest Place about the Center; but it is more likely that dry Earth should occupy that Place (d). Gilbert

(d) The learned and fagacious Dr Halley, to account for the Changes of the Needle's Variation, hath shewed a Posfibility that the exterior Parts of the terraqueous Globe are formed inwardly like the concave Surface of a petrified Shell; and the internal as a Nucleus, or inner Globe, included within ours, with a fluid medium between, which moves along with it, as having the fame common Center, without fenfiblyapproaching one Side or another, like the Globe of Saturn environed with his Ring. ' And ' tho' (fays be) these included Globes can be of very little ' Service to the Inhabitants 6 of this outward World, nor can the Sun be of Service to

them; yet fince we fee all · Parts of the Creation abound

with animate Beings, why

' should we think it strange

' that the prodigious mass of ' matter, whereof this Globe ' doth confift, should be capable ' of fome other Improvements, ' than barely to ferve to fup-' port it's Surface? Why may ' we not rather suppose, that ' the exceeding small quantity ' of matter in respect of the ' fluid Æther, is so disposed by the Almighty Wifdom, as ' to yield as great a Surface ' for the Use of living Crea-' tures, as can confift with the ' Conveniency and Security of ' the whole.

' And tho' without Light ' there can be no living, yet there are many Ways of producing Light which we are wholly ignorant of: The medium itself may be always luminous after the manner of our Ignes Fatui: The concave Arches may in feveral ' Places shine with such a Sub-

' itance

was of Opinion that the Body of the Earth within in is nothing but a very hard Loadstone; and that these exterior Parts towards the Surface, which are penetrated into by digging, and on which Herbs grow and we live, are but as it were the Bark and Crust of the Earth, and the Seat of perpetual Generation and Corruption. The Opinion of Des Cartes is not much different from this; for he believed there were three Strata in the Body of the Earth of divers Consistences. The first and innermost possessing the Center, the second of a dense and opake Nature, consisting of the minutest Particles; the third (being replete with Men and Animals) he supposes to be compounded of Particles not sticking so close together.

NEVERTHELESS, for want of Observation, we cannot affirm any thing for Certainty in this Matter; and tho' it be true that in several subterraneous Places, there is a glowing Heat, and that Smoke and sulphureous Fumes are exhaled from several hot Baths: and also tho' Thurnbeuser affirms, that he sound by Experience that the nearer they digged to the Center of the Earth, there was the less Water in Mines; yet we are still in a Doubt, and cannot positively depend upon

his particular Observation.

flance as invests the Surface of the Sun; nor can we, without a Boldness unbecoming a

Philosopher, adventure to affert the Impossibility of pe-

culiar Luminaries below, of which we have no fort of

Which we have no Idea.

'Thus have I shewn a Posfibility of a much more ample Creation than has hitherto been; and a Notion not fo much as started in the World

' before.'

Thus far Dr Halley. How he accounts for the Variation of the Needle from this Hypothesis; See the Notes upon Chap. 38. Prop. 4. of the Comparative Part, or Philos. Transact. N° 148. Pag. 208. and N° 195. Pag. 564.

## PROPOSITION VI.

The Confishence or Coherence of the Particles of the Earth is from Salt.

THE artificial Separation of the Particles of Bodies demonstrate, that in the Composition of the whole there is a certain kind of Salt which is more abundant in harder Bodies, as in Metals, Stones, &c. (a few oily Substances only excepted) (e). And that all folid Bodies are concreted by Salt, is manifest from the artificial Petrefaction of those that are soft, to any Degree of Hardness by it.

(e) Tho' most forts of Bodies are replete with faline and vitriolic Particles, fuch as may in fome means contribute to their Coagulation and Confolidation; yet the primary and naturally indivisible Corpufcles, of which the Particles of all Bodies are composed, are not connected by falt or hooked Atoms, as fome imagine; nor glewed together by Reit, which is an occult Quality or nothing, nor flick together by conspiring Motions, but rather cohere and are united by mutual Attraction. So that the smallest Particles of matter may cohere by the strongest Attractions, and compose bigger Particles of weaker Virtue; and many of these may cohere, and compose bigger Particles whose Virtue is still weaker. See Newton's Optics, pag. 370.

Hence Particles of Bodies which touch one another in large Superficies's, by a ftrong mutual

Attraction of their Parts, compose a Body very bard; and if these Particles are not so strongly attracted or entangled with each other, the Body will be brittle; if they touch one another in lefs Superficies, the Body is not fo hard, but yet may be more folid; if they only approach each other, without flipping one under another, the Body is Elastic, and springs to it's former Figure; if they flip under each other the Body is foft, and eafily yields to the stroke of the Hammer; if they fcarce touch one another the Body is crumbling, or fuch whose Parts may be easily separated; if they are small, round, slippery, and eafily agitated by Heat, the Body is fluid; if these Particles are of an unequal Superficies, and hooked or entangled one with another, then is the Body flexile or pliant, &c. See Dr Clarke's Notes upon Robault's Physics.

So that if Salt be feparated from Bodies, their Particles will no longer be cemented; but they will become Powder, which cannot be brought to a Coherence without the Admixture of faline Particles.

### PROPOSITION VII.

Various kinds of Bodies are several ways mixed together in the Globe of the Earth.

IN Mines there are found Particles of Gold, Silver, Lead, &c. not gathered into a Mass and separate from others; but sometimes mixed among themselves, and sometimes with useless Earth, in such very small Particles that the best Judges in Metals cannot at first Sight discover what sort of Mineral is contained in some Metalline Earths (f). Also in the Fields, Sand is sometimes

(f) The indefatigable Dr Hoodward, in his Effay towards a Natural History of the Earth, reasonably supposes all these Commixtures of the Particles of Bodies in the Strata of the Earth, to proceed from those strange Alterations that were every where made in the Terrestrial Globe at the Deluge, when the whole Globe was dissolved, and the Particles of Stone, Marble, and all other folid Fossils dissevered, taken up into the Water, and there fustained together with Sea Shells, and other animal and vegetable Bodies: that at length all these subsided from the Water, according to the Nature of their Gravity; the heaviest Bodies first, then those that were VOL. I.

lighter: but all that had the fame Degree of Gravity fettled down at the fame time; for that those Shells, or other Bodies, that were of the same speeific Gravity with Clay, Chalk, Sand, &c. funk down together with them, and so were inclosed in the Strata of Chalk. Clay, Sand, or Stone, which their Particles formed; that at the general Subfidence, Metals and Minerals, as well those which were amassed into lumps, as those which continued asunder, and in fingle Corpufcles, funk down to the Bottom along with Sand, Coal, Marble, &c. and so were lodged with the Strata which the Sand, &c; constituted. That all the metallic and mineral Matter which H is fometimes mixed with Clay or Lime, and fometimes with Salt, &c. Not long fince at Amsterdam, when the Earth was digged up to the Depth of two hundred thirty two Feet to make a Well, these kinds of Earth were gradually discovered. First seven Foot of Garden Mould, then nine Foot of black combustible Earth, which is called Peat, (not like that they properly call Dutch Turf) then nine Foot of foft Clay, then eight Foot of Sand and four of common Earth, then ten Foot of Clay, and again four of common Earth, next that ten Foot of fuch Sand as the Foundations of the Houses in Amsterdam are laid in, then two Foot of Clay, next four Foot of white Gravel, then five Foot of dry Earth, and one Foot of Mud, again fourteen Foot of Sand, then three Foot of fandy Clay or Mire, afterwards five Foot of Sand mixed with Clay, and next four Foot of Sand mixed with little Sea-Shells, then there was a Stratum of Clay one hundred and two Foot deep, and lastly thirty one Foot of Gravel, where the Shaft was finished.

is now found in the Fissures. or perpendicular Intervals of the Strata, was originally lodged in fingle Particles among the Sand, &c. having been detached and drawn thence by little and little by the Water, which continually pervades the Strata; and that Trees, which are found in great Plenty in Mosses, Fens, orBogs, were deposited there by the Deluge; fo that the present Earth was formed out of this promiscuous mixed Mass of Sand, Earth, Shells, and Metals, and of broken and dislocated Strata, some elevated and others depressed, by which Means all the Inequalities of the Globe, Fissures, Grotto's, Mountains, Vallies, Islands. the Chanel of the Sea, and all others, were formed, and that the whole Terraqueous Globe (with all it's Materials) was, at the Time of the Deluge, put nearly into the Condition that we at this Day behold it. See Woodward's Effay, or Philososopbical Transactions No 217. p. 115.

## PROPOSITION VIII.

The Cavities of the Earth, and the external and internal Disposition, or Situation of it's Parts, are not perpetually the same, but different at different Times.

THE Sea not only makes many Devastations and Changes in the Parts of the Earth, by some of it's Passages being stopped, and others more opened; but also that spirituous and sulphureous. Substance which here and there lies hid in the interior Parts, when it begins to heat and evaporate, impetuously shakes the exterior Parts of the Earth, raising them up, as is usual in Earthquakes. And it is probable the like Erustations may often happen in the more interior Parts of the Earth; which for the most part we have no Notion of.

WE shall treat of the mutual Changes of Land

and Water in Chapter 18, hereafter.

The Terraqueous Globe is divided into

Earth whose { covered with Water, or raised a-Surface is { bove the Waters; and into Water.

THE Superficies of that Part of the Earth which appeareth above the Waters, is, by the Interflux of the Sea thus divided.

I. INTO large Continents, or great Islands, which we suppose to be four.

North by the Hyperbo-rean Frozen and Tartaric Ocean.

H 2

I. The

1. The Old [ Europe ] and is | Pacific and World which & Asia and Sbouned & Indian Ocean. Africa on the containeth -

East by the South by the Southern Oce-West by the Atlantic, or Western Oce-

i an.

2. The New North and South Se sis bound containeth -- South

[ North by Davis's Streights. East by the Atlantic Ocean. South by the Streights. of Magel-West by the Pacific

Ocean. 3. THE Arctic Continent, or Groenland, is furrounded on every Side with Seas and Streights.

4. THE AntarEtic Continent, or Terra Australis Incognita.

II. INTO Peninsula's, or Chersonesusses, which are Parts of these Continents.

Of which fome ! Africa. tude are almost

are of a round Fi- [North and South America] gure, whose Lon- Peloponnesus, or the Morea in gitude and Lati- Greece, Taurica Chersonesus, Crim Tartary.

equal, as -- Cambaya or Guzarat.

Others

of Universal Geography. CHAP. 7.

Others oblong of which there are many, as ---

Chersonesa d'or, or Malacca in India. Cimbrica, or Jutland, contiguous to Holstein.

Corea contiguous to Tartary.

\* California, Tucatan, the Chersonesus of Romania.

Ionia [as Smyrna] Cnidus and Mindus:

Others which are almost like Peninfula's, which

Italy, Greece, and proper Achaia. Spain, Afia minor, and Arabia. Norway, with Sweden, and Lapland.

Patagon near the Streights of Magellan and New Guinea. Indostan, Cochinchina, New Bri-

tain, Monopatapa, &c.

III. INTO Mands of which there are three Classes, viz.

Britain \* Japan T. [Eleven very < Iceland James Island large ones Sumatra

Luconia? Madagascar Borneo \* Nova Zembla Newfoundland] California.

2. [Eleven] Sicily | Fava | Celebes | Candia Size -

Friesland Ceylon Mindanao

lesser ones

[ Gilolo, Amboina, Timor, among the Indian Islands

Corsica, Majorca, Cyprus, Negropont, in the Mediterranean Zealand in Denmark, and Jamaica in the Gulph of Mexico.

See the Notes upon these Words in the next Chapter.

Very many imall ones, of which we reckon -

[ 1. The most remarkable Solitary ones, are Rhodes, Malta, Lemnos, St Helena, St Thomas, Madera, &c.

2. The noted Clusters of Islands which lie near one another in

great Numbers are

The Canary Islands The Azores Cape Verd Islands The Antilles The Maldivia Islands The Comoro Islands

The Molucca and Bandana Islands The Philippine Islands The Ladrone Islands Those in the Ægean Sea The Britannic Islands The Islands of Solomon.

## IV. Isthmus's or narrow Necks of Land.

That of Suez, between Africa, and Afia. That of Corinth, joining the Morea to Achaia, That of Panama, in America, longer than any of the reft.

That between Jutland and Holstein. That joining Malacca to India.





# SECT. III.

In which the Constitution of the Earth, or the dry Part of the Terraqueous Globe, is explained, in four Chapters.

#### CHAP. VIII.

Of the natural Division of the Earth into Parts by the circumfluent Ocean.

WHAT we shall exhibit in this Chapter, concerning the Division of the Earth, and that in Chap. xv. about the Distribution of the Sea, will be of great use to young Students, for understanding, and remembring the Bonds and Situation of the several Countries on the Earth's Superficies: wherefore these two Chapters ought to be read throughout with great Attention, and compared with Maps, or the artissical terrestrial Globe. We said before, in the preceding Chapter, that the Terraqueous Globe, as to it's constituent Parts, may be best divided into a Body of a firm Consistence as Earth, and a shuid matter as Water; to which may be added the Atmosphere as a circumambient Fluid or Covering.

IN the first Place, we shall treat of the Earth, or that Part of the Globe which hath Consi-

stence.

### PROPOSITION I.

SECT. III.

Part of the Earth is covered with Water, and Part. of it is raised above the Superficies of the Water. and surrounded thereby.

THE Truth of this Proposition is manifest from Experience. Nevertheless there are some Places which are now and then covered with Water, and at other Times dry and conspicuous, as the Islands near Norway, Scotland, and other Countries, to which may be added Sand-beds or Shelves, and Seafhores; but because these are so small in comparison of the rest, we shall take no notice of them at present. Nor shall we trouble our felves here with disputing whether the greater Part of the Superficies of the Globe be taken up by Land or Water, but leave it to be discussed in Chap. xviii, and confider here only the apparent Parts of the Earth which we call Islands.

### PROPOSITION II.

The Parts of the Earth, which are raised above the Waters, are not always joined together by one continued Superficies, but often separated one from another, and formed into Islands by the Interflux of the Sea.

THESE may be distributed into five Classes, viz. Plats of Land, or Islands, that are great, and Continents that are greatest; some small, and others that are fmallest; and lastly some of a middle Size.

W E shall treat of the Origin, and Cause of these Islands in the proper Place, Chap. xviii.

THO' all the separate and apparent Parts of the Earth ought to be called Islands, because an Island is nothing but a Part of the dry Land every where environed with Water; yet, in the common Way of speaking, this Word is feldom used to express these large Tracts of Land whose Boundaries by the main Ocean, (by reason of their vast Extent) are not fo perceptible. Such as those are frequently called the Terra firma, or great Continents, which peculiar name they ought to be distinguished by on account of their Magnitude, in respect of the rest of the Islands, which are very fmall in comparison of them. Therefore we shall, in what follows, call them the Terra firma or great Continents. But the word Continent is frequently used to express several Parts of the Terra firma as well as the whole. And fometimes it is taken strictly for a Part of the Earth, on no fide contiguous to the Sea: Or in a large Sense for a Country bounded by the Sea on one fide, and on the other joined to a large Tract of the Terra firma. It is also often taken in general for a Part of the Earth joined to another, whether by a large or a narrow Tract of Land. In these Senses the Word Continent differs from that in which it is frequently used to express large Islands.

### PROPOSITION III.

These large Tracts of Land, Continents, or Terra firma, (which you will please to call them) are accounted four in Number.

1. THE old World. 2. The new World, or America. 3. The Northern Continent, or Terra Arctica. 4. The Southern Continent, or Terra Australis.

1. THE Old World (being the most famous of the four, which we inhabit, and which was only known to the Ancients) is divided, by the Sea into two Parts, which are only joined one to another by a small neck of Land, whereof one is Africa; while Europe and Asia jointly make the other. It is thus environed by the Ocean.

ON the North by the Icy or North Sea, the

White Sea, and the Tartaric Ocean.

ON the East by the Great South Sea and Pa-cific Ocean.

ON the South by the Indian Sea, the Southern

and Athiopic Ocean.

ON the West by the Atlantic Sea.

THE aforefaid Division of this Continent is made by the Mediterranean, and Arabian Gulph or Red Sea. The Distance of these two Bays, or the Breadth of the intervening Tract of Land being about 40 German Miles; so that Africa would have been an entire Terra sirma, and numbered among the Continents, but for this small Isthmus.

THE Old World is not far distant from America in the East about the [supposed] Streights of Anian [or Uries,] if there be such; but the least [known] Distance of Europe from America is between Nor-

way and Newfoundland.

THE Distance between the Old World, and the Arctic Continent is shortest about the [Icy Sea]; also the Old World is not far distant from the South Continent about New Guinea.

2. THE New World, or America, thus encompassed by the Ocean.

ON the North we are in Doubt whether there be Sea or Land beyond the Streights of Davis.

ON the East it is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean.

ON the South by the Magellanic Streights.

ON the West by the Pacific Ocean.

THE New World is also nearly divided into two Islands at *Panama* and *Nombre de Dios*, where the *Atlantic* and *Pacific Ocean* are hindred from

meeting by a very small Ridge of Land.

AMERICA is not far diffant from the Old World about the Streights of Anian [or the Sea of Japan]; and not far again from the Arctic Continent at Davis's Streights, and feparated from the South Continent only by the Streights [of la Maire] and the Magellanic Sea.

THE Artic and Antartic Continents are every where environed with Sea, the former [as is supposed] with the North Sea at the Streights of Davis, [Uries or] Anian, [and the Icy Sea]; the later with the South Sea, Pacific and Indian Ocean, and the Streights

[of la Maire].

3. THE Artic Continent is not far distant from the Old World [at the Icy Sea], nor from America at Davis's Streights; but it is separated from the South Continent by a vast Interval.

4. THE AntarEtic Continent is not far removed from the old World at the Peninfula of New Guinea, and feparated from America by the Streights of Ma-

gellan [and la Maire].

BUT we have not been able to find for certain whether the Old World, America, and the Northern Continent, be each of them encompassed with Sea, and separated one from another; tho' it be very probable that they are, by reason of the several Bays and Entrances of Streights that run in from the Ocean to the Landward. Only the Southern Continent hath been actually sailed round, and therefore is certainly known to be environed on all sides with Sea, and therefore separated from the rest. But this has not yet been done by the

other Parts; for men have not failed about the Old World much further than the Streights of Waigats, tho' the whole Western, Southern, and Oriental Shores have been visited, and there is but a small Part of the North [East] Coast that remains to be discovered (a). America also hath been failed round

(a) All the Attempts made by the Europeans to discover a North-East-Passage to the Oriental Countries have been hitherto unsuccessful. The Reafon was formerly thought in a great measure owing to the Discoverers not steering their Course near enough the North Pole; being either missed by an Opinion, that that Part of the Sea which lies betwixt Nova Zembla, and the Continent of Tartary, had been paffable; or that they might have coasted it along the North of Nova Zembla and Tartary, till they had entered the Streights of Fells, which could never be effected by Reaion that most of these northern Coasts are frozen up many Leagues from the Shore, especially in the Winter, tho' in the open Sea it is not so, even under the Pole itself; unless. for Example, upon the Approach of the Summer when the Frost breaketh, and the Ice, which was congealed near 40 or 50 Leagues from the Shore, goes off from the Land and floats up and down in the Sea; whereby feveral have been forced to quit their Defign and Hand back for their own Country. See Philof. Tranj. No. 118. Pag. 417. Big with this last notion our Country-man Capt. John Wood, the

latest Adventurer who attempted the North-East Passage, in the year 1676, steered directly NE from the North Cape of Norway, in order to fall in between Greenland and Nova Zembla; but he could find no Sea of Inlet between those Countries; on the contrary, he observed the Ice to adhere immovably to the Coast of Nova Zembla, and that all the English and Datch Pilots had been mistaken in their Conjectures of an open Ser thereabouts, for he could pass no further this Way than to the 76 Degr. of Latitude, on account of the Ice, which must have then taken up some Centuries to thaw. He concludes therefore, that Greenland and Nova Zembla must be the same Continent, by Reason there was no Current found there, but only a fmall Tide which rifes about eight Foot, and ebbs back again. And if it should be admitted, to the contrary, that the Continent of Asia and America are separated by the Ocean, yet we may now rest fatisfied that the Difficulties to be met with in a North-East Passage are not be surmounted, and possibly will never be attempted again. Salmon's Present State of all Nations, Vol. 6. Pag. 380. [I forbear

CHAP. 8. of Universal Geography. 109

round except a Part of the Northern Shores, on account of the Uncertainty of the Streights and other Difficulties. This therefore is the Situation of the four Continents.

#### PROPOSITION IV.

To enumerate the great Islands dispersed over the Surface of the Terraqueous Globe: viz.

1. BRITAIN, comprehending England and Scotland, is supposed to be the greatest of those commonly called Islands (those in the preceding Proposition excepted). It lies betwixt Europe and America, near France and Flanders. It is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, and it's Form is oblong.

2. If AP AN, in Maps and Globes is represented of a less Magnitude than it ought to be; for they that have been there affirm it to be larger, or at least no less, than Britain (b). It lies eastward of Asia not far from China. It is surrounded by the

Pacific Ocean, and is of a curve Figure.

3. LUCONIA, which is also called, from it's Metropolis, Manilba, is the Principal of the Philip-

[I forbear to enlarge upon an Account given us lately, as advices from Muscovy, of an Expedition entered upon, under the Command of one Capt. Berring, to find out this North-East-Passage, whose Voyage is now faid to be Printing at Moscow; in which he affirms, that there is a free and open Sea to about theNorth-East Point of Tartary, and believes it to be likewise open to the Sea of China, or, as some Geographers call it, the Sea of Japan.]

(b) Whether Japan be an Mand or annexed to the Land

of Jesso, the Inhabitants of both Countries doubt; because vast and inaccessible Mountains interpose, which hinder the Communication. Neither doth it as yet clearly appear, whether this Land of Jesso is a Part of Tartary, or whether it is by an Arm of the Sea divided from it. The Chinese aftern that Tartary runs 300 China Leagues beyond their famous Wall; so that if we follow them the Country of Jesso, and also Japan, may feem not to be Island but annexed to Tartary. Philof. Tranf. No 118.

pines,

pines, which are the furthest, of the Oriental Mands, on the Borders of Afia. Some will have it to be larger than Britain; but they who have been there fay it is fomething lefs. It is encompassed by the [great South Sea,] and is of a curved oblong Figure. with many Inlets and Windings.

4. MADAGASCAR, or the Island of St Laurence, lies on the eastern Shore of Africa not far from the Streights of [Babelmandel or] the Red Sea. It is environed by the Indian Ocean (all the Sea between Africa and India being now called by

that Name). It's Form is oblong.

5. SUMATRA, thought by fome Geographers to be the Taprobana of the Ancients, lies near the Borders of Asia among the [Sunda Islands] not far from the Peninfula of Malacca (c). It stretches to a great Length, and is furrounded by the Indian Ocean.

6. BORNEO is fituated in the Indian Sea, not far from Sumatra: it's Form is almost round. There is a great Difference among Authors about it's Extent; some make it's Circumference to be about 2100 Miles, and will have it to be the greatest among the Indian Islands: others but about 300.

7. ICELAND, Part of which is fituated in the Temperate, and Part in the Frigid Zone, betwixt Groenland, and Norway, is encompassed by

the Northern Ocean and it's Form is oblong.

8. NEWFOUNDLAND is an Island adjacent to Canada, in North America. It is fomething larger than it is shewed in our common Maps. It is environed by the Northern Ocean, and receiveth the Sea in at a great many Creeks.

(c) Not Sumatra but Ceylon is thought, by all modern Geographers, to be the Taprobane of the Ancients. And it is still

called by the Indians Tenerafin. i. e. A Land of Delights, as it was represented by the Ancients.

9. [7 AMES's

9. [JAMES's or Cumberland's Island] lies in the Northern Ocean near the Artlic Continent, between Davis's and Hudson's Streights. I have not found it in any Map before that of Vischerus, printed in 1594. It is a large Island of an oval Figure.

10. NOVA Zembla is fituated between the Artic Continent and the Land of the Samoieds and [Ofliacs]. It is bounded on the North by the Icy and [Muscovian] Sea, and separated from Europe at the Land of the Samoieds by the Streights of Waygats (d). It's

Form is oval.

II. CALIFORNIA may be added to these if it be an Island, and not a Part of America (e). The Dutch sound in a Spanish Ship a large Geographical Map, in which California was represented as an Island not contiguous to America, but surrounded with the Sea.

(d) Mr Witsen tells us, in Philof. Trans. No 101. Pag. 3. " That he had received out of " Muscovy, a new Map of Nova " Zembla and Waygats, as it " had been discovered by the " express Order of the Czar; " by which it appears, that " Nova Zembla is not an Island, " as hitherto believed, and that " the Mare Glaciale is not a " Sea but a Bay." Tho' Mr Witsen himself seems to be of a contrary Opinion afterwards, in another Transaction No 193. Pag. 494. where he fays. " I " formerly thought Nova " Zembla a Continent; but I " have fince been better in-" formed. Therefore fince no " Ships have failed beyond it, " it may be both joined to the " Continent, and extended to "the Pole, for ought we can discover."

(e) Gemelli tells us, that a Provincial at Manilha, in the year 1697. " Thought California a Part of the Conti-" nent; because some Fathers " of the Society having gone " to the Mouth of the Streights " which is 60 Leagues over, " and run many Leagues up it, " found at last that there was " but very little Water in the " Chanel, and could go no " further; by which he guef-" fed, that long Bay had no " Communication with the " Northern Sea to make Co-" lifornia an Island." Collect. Voyages and Travels. Vol. 4. Pag. 420. Father Eusebius Francis Kino is also of the same Opinion, as is understood from his Map communicated to the Royal Society, Anno 1708. Nevertheless it is generally reprefented in our Maps as an Island. PROPO.

## PROPOSITION V.

To enumerate the Islands of a middle Size scattered over the Surface of the Globe: viz.

1. If AVA, one of the Sunda Islands betwixt Asia and New Holland, is replenished with every Thing fit for human Life, and is a perfect earthly Paradife. It is surrounded by the India Ocean; and it's Form is oblong.

2. CUB A, one of the Antilles, betwixt Florida and New Spain, is encompassed by the Atlantic Ocean at the Entrance into the Gulph of Mexico. It's Form

is oblong.

3. HIS PANIOLA lies to the South of Cuba, and is almost as large. It is furrounded by the North, or Atlantic, Sea, where it flows into the Gulph of Mexico. It is of an oval Figure, with several Notches in it.

4. IRELAND lieth near Britain, towards America. It is environed by the North Sea; and it's

Form is oval.

5. CANDIA in the Mediterranean, near Greece, is of an oblong Figure.

6. SICILI lies in the Mediterranean, near Italy.

It's Form is [ fomewhat Triangular.]

7. CEYLON, near the furthest Promontory of Cormandel in India; is surrounded by the Indian Ocean, and is of a round Figure. Barrius will have this to be the Taprobana of the Ancients.

8. MIND ANAO, one of the Philippine Islands

in the Pacific Ocean, is of an oval Figure.

9. SARDINIA lies in the Mediterranean. It's

Form is oblong.

10. CELEBES, an Island not far from Borneo, is encompassed by the Indian Ocean; and is of an oblong Figure.

II. FRIES-

CHAP. 8. of Universal Geography. 113

II. FRIESLAND, not far from Iceland, may also be referred to this Class.

## PROPOSITION VI.

To enumerate the small Islands in the Globe's Superficies: viz.

t. GILOLO, one of the [Molucca Islands] is furrounded with the [great South-Sea] and shaped like a Horse-Shoe.

2. AMBOINA, not far from Gilolo in the fame

Ocean; is of an oblong Figure.

3. TIMOR, an Island adjoining to [Arnhems Land in ] the Continent; it is one of the [Sunda Islands] and it's Form is round.

4. JAMAICA, one of the [Antilles] in the

Gulph of Mexico, is of an oblong Figure.

5. ZELAND, an Island in Denmark between Jutland and Gotland. It is furrounded by the North-Sea, as it flows into the Baltic, and is of a round Figure.

6. NEGROPONT, near Greece in the [Ar-

chipelago], is of an oblong Figure.

7. MAJORCA, in the Mediterranean, near Spain, [is of a quadrangular Figure].

8. CORSICA, [near Sardinia] in the Mediter-

ranean, [is of an oval Figure].

9. CTP RUS, not far from the leffer Afia in the Mediterranean, is also of an oval Figure.

10. IS ABELLA, one of Solomon's Islands, in

the Pacific Ocean.

THERE are feveral other Islands that might be referred to this Class, but we shall consider them among the following.

#### PROPOSITION VII.

There are almost an innumerable Multitude of very little Islands dispersed over the Surface of the Globe; among which these following deserve a particular Consideration. 1. The celebrated Solitary ones. 2. Those that are collected into Clusters, and, for their Affinity to one another, included under one Name.

THE most noted Solitary Islands are, Those in the Mediterranean; viz. Rhodes, Malta, Yvica,

Minorca, Scio, Cephalonia, &c.

THOSE in the Atlantic Ocean between Africa and Brasil, St Helena, well know to Mariners, Ascension Isle, St Thomas's Isle, lying in the Equator.

MADERA which lies off the Streights of

Gibraltar, towards America.

ZOCOTR Alying before the [Streights of Babelmandel].

GOTL AND lying in the Baltic.

PAR ADON, supposed by the Portuguese Sailors (as Linschoten relates) to lie about a hundred Miles West of the Canaries, hath this peculiar Property, that it is fometimes perceptable, but for the most part invisible; so that several Geographers dispute it's Existence. They tell us it's Fields are green and fertile, and that the Inhabitants are Christians, but they know not from what Nation they are descended, or what Language they use. The Spaniards once made a Voyage from the Canaries to feek it, but could never find it: Therefore fome have thought it to be an Illusion, or Apparition; others will have it to be feen only fome certain Days of the Year, and at other Times to be covered with a Cloud. The whole Story feems to me fabulous and foolish.

FLOAT-

CHAP. 8. of Universal Geography. ite FLOATING Islands ought also to be reckoned among these, for which see Chapter xviii.

## PROPOSITION VIII.

To enumerate the Clusters of Islands in the several Parts of the Globe.

W E generally call these Clusters of Islands, having

no better Name to express them by, such as:

1. THE Canaries, formerly called the Fortunate Islands, which lie in the Atlantic Ocean, near the Western Shore of Africa, over against Mount Atlas. They are [Seven] in Number, not reckoning the Salvages.

2. THE Azores, or Flandrian Islands, betwixt Europe and America, in the Western Ocean; they

are accounted Nine in Number.

3. THE Islands of Cape Verd, or the Hefperides of the Ancients, lie in the Atlantic Ocean; near the Western Shore of Africa, over against

Cape Verd. These are Ten in Number. 4. THE Maldivia Islands lie in the Indian Ocean, not far from the Coast of Malabar in India, and extend North-West from the second Degree of South Latitude, to the seventh Degree of North Latitude. Their Number is very uncertain, some reckoning them one Thousand, and others twelve Thousand. Narrow Chanels, which feem to be worn by the Currents, separate them one from another, of which some are not a Stone's-cast over.

5. [THE Antilles comprehending] 1. The Lucaios or Bahama Islands, situated between Cape Florida and Cuba, are remarkable in being one of them (viz. St Salvador) the first Land feen by Columbus, the first of the Europeans that discovered America: The Chief of them is Lucayo, from whence the rest are named [being of the larger fort, about seven

225

in Number]. 2. [The Virgin Caribee, or Leeward Islands] between Hispaniola and the Old World. 3. [The Stotovento and Bermudas Islands] to which are referred all those in the Gulph of Mexico.

6. THE [Comoro and Admiralty Islands] lie be-

tween Madagascar and Africa.

7. THE Molucco [and Sunda] Islands are many in Number, of which five are particularly called [Spice Islands]. They are surrounded by the Indian

8. THE [old and new] Philippine Islands near the remote Parts of Asia, are almost innumerable.

9. THE Banda Islands, and others betwixt Ja-

va and [Timor].

10. THE Ægean Islands, or those in the Archipelago.

II. THE Japan Islands.

12. [PRINCE William's Islands] or those of Solomon in the Pacific Ocean.

13. THE Ladrone Islands, in the same Ocean. 14. THE British Islands, or those about Eng-

land and Scotland.

15. THE. Islands of Terra del Fuego, between

the Streights of Magellan and those of la Maire.

TO these may be referred such Islands as are found in large Rivers, as those in the Nile in Africa, the Wolga, St Laurence in Canada, and in other Rivers: Also those observed in Lakes or Morasses, fuch as are in the Morafs of Lambre in Africa, and in the Lakes of South America.

WE do not here reckon those Islands, that in great Numbers are stretched along the Shores of some Countries, as Norway, China, Brafil, Davis's

Streights, &c.

## PROPOSITION IX.

Besides these Islands there are other Parts of the Earth, whose Surfaces are different in Shape or Figure; such as Peninsula's and Islamusses.

A Peninsula, called by the Greeks Chersonesus, is a Part of the Earth joined to another by a narrow Neck of Land, and on every Side else encompassed with the Sea. That narrow Tract or strait Passege, whereby one Country hath communication with another by Land, is called an Istomus. We must also here observe those Parts of the Earth that are stretched out into the Sea, but are joined by a larger Tract to the main Land, for such extended Parts from a Species of Peninsula's and may in some sense be so called.

SUCH are Italy, Spain, part of England, Greece and proper Achaia, Asia minor, Norway with Sweden and Lapland, Indostan, New Guinea in the South Continent, [New Holland] New Britain, and [New Scotland] in America, Cambodia, Patagon, the extream Parts of Africa, &c.

## PROPOSITION X.

To enumerate the Peninsula's.

THESE Peninsula's are oblong, viz.

1. CHERSONESA d'or, or Malacca, contiguous to India.

2. CIMBRICA, or Jutland, contiguous to

Holftein.

3. CALIFORNIA, on the Western Shore of North America, 'is thought, by some, to be a Peninsula; but commonly represented in our Maps as an Island.

I 3 4. YUCATAN

4. YUCATAN, in the Bay of Mexico, contiguous to New Spain.

5. THE Chersonesus of Romania, near the Hel-

lestont.

6. COREA, was formerly thought to be an Island, and not a Peninsula. In some Maps I have feen it joined to Tartary, and in others furrounded with the Sea. Nevertheless, the latest Observations make it a Peninsula; but even now it is not settled among Geographers.

7. TO these may be added the three small ones of Ionia in leffer Afia [or Smyrna], Melasso, and Hali-

carnassus.

THESE Six Peninfula's are roundish, viz.

I. AFRICA a great Part of the old World, furrounded by the Mediterranean, Atlantic, Æthiopic, Indian, and Red Sea. It is joined to Asia by a narrow Neck of Land near Ægypt.

2. 3. NORTH and South America viz. Mexico and Peru. They are joined together by the Streights

of Panama.

- 4. PELOPONNESUS, now called the Morea, a Part of Greece.
- 5. TAURICA Chersonesus, now called [Crim Fartary ] in the Black Sea, near the Streights of Caffa.

# 5. CAMBAYA, or Guzarat, in India. PROPOSITION XI.

There are as many Ishmus's as Peninsula's. Those of most note are,

y. THAT of Suez, which joins Africa to Asia.

2. THAT of Corinth, which joins the [Morea to Achaia.

3. THAT of Panama, which joins North Ame-

rica to South America.

4. THAT joining Malacca to India. And, 5. THAT joining [Crim to Precop Tartary.]

CHAP.



#### CHAP. IX.

## Of Mountains in general.

ANY Things occur worthy of particular Notice, in explaining the Natue of Mountains, and therefore they are copiously handled by Geographical Writers, especially the Computation of their Altitudes, because they seem to many to make against the Earth's Rotundity.

## PROPOSITION I.

A Mountain is an elevated Part of the day Land, overtopping the adjacent Country; and a Hill or Cliff is a small kind of Mountain. A Promontory, is a Mountain stretching itself into the Sea, and Rocks are Stones raised above the Sea or Land, in the Form of Mountains.

WE must know that all the Parts of the Earth which appear plain, are not exactly of the same Altitude, but commonly elevated towards the Inland Parts, and depressed towards the Sea Shores, as is manifest from the Origin and Course of Rivers; for that Part towards which they slow, is always more depressed than that where they spring; and Fountains seldom are increased into Rivers, unless they take their Origin from Mediterranean or inland Countries: which shews, that those Countries are more elevated than the Maritime Parts. So Bohemia is known to be higher than Holstein, be-

cause the River Elbe rises in the former, and falls into the later. Also from the Danube, and Weser, the Rhine, and the Moselle, we perceive the greater Altitude of those inland Countries, from whence they flow. For this reason, Switzerland and the Country of the Grisons, are accounted the highest Lands in Europe; because the Rhine, the Danube, and the Rhone, derive their source from them. Moreover, the inland Countries are elevated above the maritime Parts, according to the different Declivity and Rapidity of the Rivers.

HERE follow fome Problems, by which we may form a Judgment upon the controverfial Writings handed down to us, about the different Alti-

tudes of Mountains.

## PROPOSITION II.

To take the Height of a Mountain by Altimetry.

TIIIS is performed the same Way as we take the Height of a Tower, provided the very Top of the Mountain be perceptible by any Mark.

LET AB (Fig. 12.) be the Altitude of a Mountain, A the Foot of it, B the Mark feen at the Top. Take the Line FC at a convenient Distance, so that neither of the Angles AFC or ACF may be very acute, but nearly equal. Let the Angles BFC and BCF be observed; and the Sum of their Degrees being taken from 180 the Remainder will give the Angle CBF (a). Then let CF the Distance of the two Stations be accurately measured; which done, say, as the Sine of the Angle FBC, to the Sine of the Angle CFB: (or of FCB: if you would find FB) so

is FC to BC the Distance of the Top of the Mountain from C. Then [with a Telescope fixed to a Quadrant or otherwise] take the Angle BCA, and you will have also the Angle ABC, because the Triangle CAB is rectangular \*.

THEREFORE in the Triangle ABC, As the Radius 10000000, is to the Sine of the Angle BCA: fo is the Diftance BC, to the perpendi-

cular Altitude of the Mountain A B.

FOR Example. Let us suppose that Xenagoras, the Son of Eumelus, used some such Method as this to find the Height of the Mountain Olympus, which he is faid to have measured exactly. Wherefore if he found the Angle BFC 84 degr. 18 min. and the Angle BCF 85 degr. 34 min. then was CBF 10 degr. 8 min. And suppose, by measuring, or some other Method, he found FC 1200 Grecian Feet, or 2 Furlongs. Therefore as the Sine of the Angle CBF 10 degr. 8 min. 17594 is to the Sine of the Angle BCF 85 degr. 34 min. 99701: fo is CF 1200 Feet to BF 6800 Feet, the Distance from the Top. Likewise the Angle BFA being found, by some Instrument then in Use to be 63 degr. 30 min. by faying, in the Triangle FAB, As Rad. 100000 to the Sine of the Angle BFA 89500: so is FB 6800 to AB 6096 Feet, the Alritude of Mount Olympus. But 600 Feet make a Grecian Furlong; therefore dividing 6096 by 600, the Quotient, 10 Furlongs 96 Feet, is the Height of Mount Olympus in Grecian Measure, as Xenagoras found it. Note, Each of these Furlongs is about if of a German Mile.

ARISTOTLE and feveral others affirm, that this Mountain, Olympus, is so high, that there is no Rain, nor the least Motion of Air upon the Top of it; which he, and the Ancients understood

from their finding the Draughts of Letters made in Ashes, which had been regularly scattered, to remain entire and fresh as they were at first, without being either confused or defaced in many Years; therefore they supposed it to be raised above the fecond Region of the Air.

THERE is also another Method of taking the Altitude of Mountains, by two Stations in the fame Plane, with the perpendicular Height of the Mountain; but this is subject to Error because

of the small Difference of the Angles (b).

(b) There is a very pleasant and expeditious Method of taking the Height of Mountains by the Barometer, thus: It is to be observed how many Inches or Parts of Inches the Quickfilver is depressed at the Top of the Mountain, we have a mind to measure, below the Altitude it hath acquired, at the same Time, at the Bottom or Superficies of the Sea; from whence the true Height of the Mountain is found by an established Proportion. This Proportion may be known by the Table we have added below to Chap. xix. Prop. 7. Alfo, by this Table, the Height of the Quickfilver at the Surface of the Sea may be found, by observing it's Height at any Place, whose Altitude above the Sea is known. But this is to be observed, that the Altitudes found this way will be more accurate, the nearer the Height of the Quickfilver is to 28 French Inches or to 2913 English.

Jurin's Appendix. This way of taking the Height of Mountains, is very

expeditious and pleasant, as Dr Jurin saith, and with due care may be very useful to several purpoles; particularly in measuring the Height of Islands above the Sea, by two Observers, with well adjusted Barometers; and at the same Instant of time, observing the Baro. metrical Heights, by the Seafide, and on the highest Part of the Island. So also it may ferve to give an Estimate of the Height of a Fountain, or River, that we would have conveyed to some Miles Distance. But in all those Experiments, it is necessary that the Barometer (as I faid) should be well adjusted, and (if two Observers) that the Observations should be made at the same time, to prevent errors that may arise from errors in the Barameter, or from the Alteration of the Weight of the Atmosphere; which fometimes changes in the very time of Observation, if we are not speedy therein.

For the Discovery of a Mountain's or any other, Height, Dr Halley (from Barometrical

Observa-

A LSO having the Height of a Tower given, and it's Distance from the Mountain, we may more accurately find the Height of the Mountain itself; thus, suppose F to be a Tower 300 Foothigh, and from it's Top, or some convenient Place, let BFP be observed to be 83 degr. 30 min. then will BP be sound to be 5796 Feet, to which the Height of the Tower is to be added: PA.

## PROPOSITION III.

The perspicuous Altitude of a Mountain being given, to find what Distance we are from it; by a Quadrant [Theodolite] or any other Surveying Instrument, for taking Heights or Angles.

LET the Height of the Mountain AB be known beforehand, by the Observations of others, to be 10 Grecian Furlongs 96 Feet, or 6096 Feet. And let the Place of Observation be at F; (Fig. 13.) the Distance FA is supposed to be required. Let the Angle BFA by a Quadrant or [Theodolite] be found 63 degr. 30 min. Then in the right-angled Triangle BAF, where three Things are given, it will be as the Radius 100000 is to the Tangent of the Angle ABF 26 degr. 30 min. 49858: so is AB 6096 to AF 3040 Feet, or 5 Furlongs

Observations in Snowden-Hill) concludes, that the Quicksilver descends a Tenth of an Inch, every 30 Yards of Ascent. And Dr Derham (by good Observations on the Monument in London) reckons 82 Feet for every tenth of an Inch. Vid. Lowthorp's Abridg. Vol. 2. p. 13, &c. But by very nice Observations he afterwards made

with excellent Instruments at divers Altitudes in St Paul's Dome, and when the Barometer was at a different Height, he found, at near 90 Feet, the Quicksilver sunk 10, and at somewhat less than double, and treble that Height, 20 and 10, according to Dr Halley's Table, ibid. p. 16, and Mr Cassin's referred to in this Note (b).

of Observation and the Mountain.

THERE are fome Inftruments by which you may perform this, without making use of the Canon of Sines, &c. as is apparent from their Description, but the Result is this way less accurate, for Want of Exactness in the Lines of Proportion.

Note. In both these Problems we have taken the Distance FA for a right Line, because of the small Difference between it and a Curve; but shall consider it as Part of the Periphery of the Earth in the following Methods.

#### PROPOSITION IV.

Having the Distance between a Mountain and the Place where it's Top may be first seen, given: to find Geographically the Height of the Mountain.

LET us take, for Example, the prodigious high Mountain in the Island of Teneriff, one of the Canaries, commonly called the Pike of Teneriff. Let AFC, (Fig. 14.) whose Center is R, be the Periphery of the Earth, or the Meridian of the Mountain, and let AB be the Mountain itself. Draw from B the right Line BF a Tangent to the Periphery, and F will be the first or last Point from which the Top of the Mountain can be feen. (Then Draw R F) Mariners affirm, that they first discover the Top of this Mountain when they are 4 Degr. of the Meridian distant from it (and they need not be at a loss for finding the Distance from any Mountain in Degrees when they are failing under the same Meridian it is in). Therefore, suppoling their Relation to be true, and the first vifual Ray BF to come in a direct Line from the Top B, let us endeavour to find out the Altirude

tude of the Mountain. In the Triangle BRF there are three Things known. 1. R F the Semidianneter of the Earth. 2. The Right-angle BFR. And 3. Because the Arch FA is 4 Degr. the Angle BRF is also 4. Degr. Therefore fay, As the Radius (100000000) is to the Secant of the Angle BRF 4 Degr. (10024419) fo is RF (3440 Italian Miles or 860 German Miles) to R B (3448 Italian Miles or 860 German Miles); substract RA (3440 or 860) and there will remain BA (8 Italian Miles, or 2 German Miles, for the Height of the Mountain [which is extraordinary, and even above the Computations of the Antients]. Therefore we must know that there are two Things affumed as Truths which are actually false. 1. It is supposed that the Ray of Light which first strikes the Eye, comes from B in a right Line, when it is known on the contrary to be curved, or refracted, by Reason of the Denfity of the Atmosphere. For a Right Line cannot be drawn from the Top B to F (FA being 4 Degr.) without passing thro' a Part of the Earth, and therefore the Top B cannot be feen in a right Line from the Place F, but by the bowed Ray BTF, being the first of the refracted Rays that can touch F. From whence we way reasonably infer, that this Refraction causes the Mountain to be discovered sooner by I Degr. (or 15 German Miles) than if there had been no Refraction at all; fo that supposing A F but 3 Degr. the Height of the Mountain will be found but 40 Furlongs, or 5 Italian Miles. 2. It is to be confidered, that Sailors allow themselves a Liberty of fpeaking largely, especially about their Distances; if therefore, in Confideration of this, we deduct half a Degr. more, and suppose the Top first seen at 21 Degr. or 38 German Miles equal to FA; then will the Altitude of the Mountain AB be found' 126

found by the former Calculation to be a Mile,

or thereabouts.

IF a Mountain be first seen at 2 Degr. distance. (setting aside the Refraction) it will be found 2 *Italian* Miles high; but if at 1 Degr. or 15 German Miles, it will be half an *Italian* Mile, or 5 Furlongs high.

To this Purpose is calculated the following Table.

If the Altitude of a Mountain be	Ger. Mil.	7	6	Ţ	.i. 4	3	2	İ
Then it will be seen at the Distance of	143	151	17	181	21	24	29	41 ½

BUT these are all to be understood without Refraction, whereby the apparent Height and Distance is generally increased, as may be seen by the Figure; where the refracted Ray TF being produced to N, gives the apparent Altitude NA.

## PROPOSITION V.

Having the Altitude of a Mountain given, to find Geographically it's Distance from the Place, whence it may be first seen.

THIS is but the converse of the last Proposition, and may be had from the foregoing Table: but Calculation will give a more accurate Solution.

LET therefore AB be the Height of a Mountain given, and suppose it to be first seen at F, to find the Distance AF. (Fig. 14.) In the right angled Triangle BFR, the Angle F is a right Angle, and the two Sides FR, RB are given, the former being the Semidiameter of the Earth. and the later the same added to AB, which suppose half a German Mile; so that RF or RA being

860 Miles, BR will be 8601. Therefore fay, as RB 8602 isto FR 860: so is the Radius 10000000 to the Sine of the Angle RBF 9994186. 88 degr. 2 min. 40 sec. Wherefore BRF or the Arch AF will be i. degr. 57 min. 20 fec. which being turned into German Miles make 292, the Distance from whence a Mountain whose Altitude is half a Mile, may be first feen without any Refraction, upon which Account we may add 8 Miles, fo that it may be actually feen 371 Miles off. But the Refraction varies according to the different Altitude of the Sun, or the different Density of the Air, when the Sun, is below the Horizon; as we shall shew more at large, when we come to treat of the Atmosphere; and in the third Part of this Book, where we shall discourse of the visible Horizon.

## PROPOSITION VI.

The Length of the Shadow of a Mountain, and the Altitude of the Sun at the same Time, being given, to find the Altitude of the Mountain.

WE propose this Problem more for the Antiquity and Elegancy of it, than for any Accuracy we believe to be in the Method. Plutarch and Pliny have writ, that Mount Athos, on the Macedonian Shore, is so high, as that it overshadoweth the Ise of Lemnos, [now called Stalimene] as far as the Market-place of the City of Myrrhina [or Lemnos], when the Sun is in the Summer Solftice; where the ancient Inhabitants for the Curiofity of the Appearance erected a Brazen Calf, at the termination of the Shadow, as is testified by the old Greek Monostich, which may be thus Englished.

Mount Atho's Shadow covers half The Bulk of Lemno's molten Calf. (c)

PLINY writes, that the Distance between Athos and the Isle of Lemnos, was accounted 87005 Paces, or 87 Italian Miles, but neither he nor any other Author have determined the Altitude of the Sun, at the Time of this Shadow; tho' it is probable, it was projected upon the Town of Myrrbina when Mount Athos, a little before Sun-fet, began to intercept their View of the Sun-Beams; the Sun being then in the same vertical Circle, which passeth over Athos and Myrrhina (because Athos is fituated westward of Myrrbina). We may suppose the Sun to have been almost in the very Horizon of Myrrbina FO, and so the Ray OF, paffing the Top of the Mountain, to have projected the Shadow AF (Fig. 15). Here OF is a Tangent to the Periphery, and from having the Angle FBR given, and also FR, (or FA in the Triangle, BAF taken as a right Line) BA will be tound to be 8 Furlongs, or 1 Italian Mile for the Height of a Mountain. But because in this Position of the Sun, the Shadow would be infinitely continued, and therefore it's Extent could not be observed; and as the Interposition of the Houses in the Town, would also intercept the neighbouring Rays, to those that bounded the Shadow; therefore, we must allow the Sun to have been elevated at least 2 Degr. above the Horizon of Myrrbina;

(c) 'Aδως καλύψει σελευξά λημνίας βούς.

Mr Salmon looks upon this to be a very ridiculous Affertion, and tells us that there never was a Shadow differnable at 10 Miles Distance from the Hill that made it. But, in opposition to this, Mr Edens says, that he actually faw the Shadow of the Pike of Teneriff upon the Sea reaching over the Island Gomera, and the Shadow of the upper Part, viz. of the Sugarloaf to be imprinted like another Pike in the Sky itself. See Salmon's Prefent State of all Nat. Vol. 5, Pag. 396. and Philof. Trans. No 345-Pag. 317.

For Example, to S; fo that SFO may be 2 Degr. and SF a Ray of the Sun passing the Vertex of the Mountain T, and terminating the Shadow in F.

THEREFORE in the oblique angled Triangle RFT, the Angle TFR 92 Degr. and FRT 1 degr. 6 min. (1. e. the Diffance FA 87 Italian Miles, turned into Degr.) hence FTR 86 d gr. 54 min. and also the Semidiameter FR, 860 German Miles, being all given; the Side TR may be found by this Proportion. As the Sine of the Angle FTR 86 degr. 54 n.in. is to the Sine of the Angle FTR 86 degr. fo is FR 860, to RT 861 German Miles. So that AT, the Altitude of Mount Athos, is 1 German Mile, or 32 Furlongs, which is too much; for the Grecians account it not above 11 Furlongs.

IF we assume the Altitude of the Sun to be but one Degr. the Altitude of the Mountain will be

found but 20 Furlongs.

BUT Pliny, I suppose, has given us too large a Distance betwixt Athos and Myrrhina, which may perhaps be a Reason, that too great a Height arises from this Calculation: and in most of our modern Maps of Greece, the Distance FA seems to be but about 55 Italian Miles; wherefore the Angle FRT will be but about 55 min. So that supposing the Sun's Altitude to be 1 degr. 30 min. the Angle TFR will be 91 degr. 30 min. and FTR 87 degr. 35 min. Therefore in the Triangle FRT, as the Sine of the Angle FRT 87 degr. 35 min. is to the Sine of the Angle TFR 91 degr. 30 min. so is FR 860 to RT.

OR in the Triangle TFA right angled at A, TFA will be I degr. 30 min. and FA, supposed a right Line, 55 Miles, from whence the Height TA will be found by this Proportion. As the Radius is to the Tangent of the Angle TFA, I degr. 30 min. so is FA 55 Miles to AT, the Altitude of

the Mountain.

TO this Place belongs the Solution of this Problem, viz. Having the difference of Time between the Sun's rifing (or fetting) on the Top of a Mountain, and it's first Appearance to (or Occultation from) an Observer at the Bottom, to find, if required, the Height of the Mountain; and converfly, having the Height of the Mountain, to find this difference of Time. Aristotle and Pliny, have, by this Method of Calculation, supposed some Mountains to be of incredible Altitudes, as appears from their Writings. However, fince the Solution of these Problems depends upon another, which we have referred to the second Part of this Work, we shall refer them to Chapter xxx.

## PROPOSITION VII.

The highest Mountains have no sensible Proportion to the Semidiameter of the Earth; or so little, that their Altitude no more affects it's Rotundity, than a speck or particle of Dust upon the Surface of the artificial Globe does it's Rotundity.

WE have shewed, that the Mountain in the Island of Teneriff, called the Pike, is at most no higher than a German Mile, or a German Mile and a half; and we are affured, that there are but few Mountains in the World higher than that: Therefore since the Earth's Semidiameter is 860 such Miles, the Altitude of this high Mountain is to the Earth's Semidiameter as 1 to 860. But few Mountains are of this Height, most of them not exceeding a quarter of a Mile; wherefore they no more obstruct the Earth's spherical Figure, than the fmall inequality observed in Globes turned artificially, does their Rotundity; and Nature hath not

CHAP. 9. of Universal Geography. 131 yet been able to produce a Body of an exact Geometrical Roundness (d).

## PROPOSITION VIII.

To explain the Origin of Mountains.

THIS is a great Question with some Philosom phers, but others think it superfluous, and not fit to be enquired into; because they suppose Mountains to have had a Being ever fince the Creation. Nevertheless History acquaints us, that not a few Mountains have been undermined by interior Ruins, and funk down into fubterraneous Chasms and Receptacles, or wasted by some other Means; fo that fince we can perceive a natural Decay and Corruption of them, we may judge they do not proceed from a supernatural Origin. Moreover, that feveral Mountains were raifed fuccessively, and at feveral Times, is apparent from the Quantities of Sea-shells that are found in some of them, as in those of Gelderland, &c. Such Mountains as these seem to be generated by a rapid Wind, carrying Sand and Gravel by Degrees into the form of the Mountain, which is afterwards foaked and made folid by the Rain. This is to be understood in little Mountains, as to the very large ones it is probable, they

(d) Tho' the Body of the Moon be three times as little as the Earth, and the Protuberances or Mountains upon her Surface, three times as high as the higheft upon the Earth's Surface; yet when she is at the full, and observed with the naked Eye, we cannot perceive that these vast Mountains in the least obstruct, or deface her apparent Rotundity. On the contrary,

when she is viewed thro' a good Telescope, we can see the outward Edge of her Disk notched and made rugged, by the Topsos the Mountains rising far above the other Parts of the Surface; which need not seem strange, when the best polished Globe that ever was made, being viewed thro' a good Microscope, is found not to be free from such Rugosities.

K 2

are

are of the same Age and Origin with the Earth it-felf. They that argue more Theologically, suppose the Globe of the Earth to have been at first created perfectly round, and with a fost Surface, without any eminent Parts or Mountains, without any Fissures or Grottos; and atterwards, when GOD commanded the Waters to be gathered together in one Place, then there were Chanels made to receive the Waters, and the Earth that was removed out of these Chanels, was converted into Mountains. But we leave it to them to prove, whether the Mountains be so many, and so large, as to fill all the Chanels of the Sea (e).

## PROPOSITION IX.

To explain the Causes, why Rain, Mists, and Snows, are frequent upon the Tops of the Mountains; when in the neighbouring Vallies, the Air is serene and calm without any such Meteors.

WE are informed by those, that have travelled over the Mountains of Asia, Peru, and other Countries,

(e) Dr Wo award, in his ' Ffiay towards a Natural Hi-' flory of the Earth, propofes ' to prove, that the Strata at first, whether of Stone, of ' Chalk, of Coal, of Earth, or ' whatever other Matter they " confifted of, (lying each upon other) were all originally · parallel: that they were plain, even, and regular; and the ' Surface of the Earth like-' wife even and spherical: that ' they were continuous, and f not interrupted or broken: ' and that the whole Mass of the Water lay then above

' them all, and conflituted a ' fluid Sphere environing the 'whole Globe. 'That after ' fome Time the Strata were ' broken on all fides of the ' Globe: that they were dif-' located and their Situation ' varied, being elevated in 6 fome Places, and depreffed ' in others. That the Inequa-' lities and Irregularities of the ' Terrestrial Globe, were caufed by this Means: date their ' Original from this Difrup-' tion, and are entirely owing unto it. That the more eminent Parts of the Earth, · Mountains

tries, that while they were on their Tops, they were frequently attacked with Showers of Rain, Snow, and thick Fogs; but defcending thence into the neighbouring Vallies, they observed no such Meteors, but enjoyed a serene and pleasant Air. We also observe the same in the Mountains of our

own Country.

SOME fay, the Cause of this Phænomenon is owing to an occult Power that Mountains have of attracting Air, Clouds, and other Meteors; but fince they cannot explain this Power, they fay nothing to the Purpose (f). The following Explication feems to me the most rational, viz. That Vapours and Exhalations being condensed into fmall Drops, in the middle Region of the Air, (into which the Tops of feveral Mountains rife) begin to descend and fall upon the Tops of the subjacent Mountains which are nearer them than the Vallies, and coming there first to Ground, they leave their Places in the Air, which are presently taken up by the small Drops that are next them; these being pressed and forced downwards by others, either to avoid a Vacuum, or because it is the Na-

Mountains and Rocks, are only the Elevations of the Strata; these wherever they were folid, rearing against and supporting each other in the Posture wherein they were put, by the bursting or breaking up of the Sphere of the Earth.' Woodward's Essay, Pag. 90, 91, 92.

(f) The Air in Vallies is much heavier than the Vapours, and therefore fitted to support them better than that light Air which is upon the Tops of high Mountains. Therefore when the Vapours are put into a violent Agitation, and, in some mea-

fure, condensed by Winds, or other external Causes, they gather themselves into Clouds and Mists, and by their own specific Gravity, fall downwards, till they meet with fuch Air as is heavy and able to support them, with which they mix and fwim about, and are every way difperfed in it, whereby the Sky is made ferene and clear: but if they meet not with fuch Air, or light upon the Top of a Mountain before they come at fuch Air, then they are formed into Drops, and fall down to the Ground.

ture of Water to flow to the lowest Place, or to that Place where the Flux was first begun.

## PROPOSITION X.

There happen to Mountains, Ruins, Ruptures, Transpositions, &c.

IT is but feldom fuch Accidents happen, yet fome Instances are found in History, especially of Ruptures, whereof we shall give some Examples in the following Chapter.

#### PROPOSITION XI.

Whether the Superficies of a Mountain be more capacious than the Plane whereon it stands?

THAT it is larger is proved from Geometry: But whether it can support a greater Number of living Creatures, or produce a larger Quantity of Corn is another Question; to which I answer in the Affirmative. For tho' every thing placed upon the Surface of the Mountain, is supposed to stand perpendicular to the subjacent Plane, yet there is a greater Quantity of Earth, and a larger Superficies.





#### CHAP. X.

Of the Difference of Mountains and their Extent, and particularly of Burning Mountains.

## PROPOSITION I.

Some Mountains are of small Extent, and others run out to a great Distance.

THE latter Sort, called Ridges, or Chains of Mountains, are found almost in every Country throughout the World; and such might be accounted one continued Mountain, if it were not for small Breaches or Passages that sometimes intervene. They are indifferently extended several Ways; some from North to South, others from East to West, and some to other Points collateral to the four Cardinal ones.

THE most celebrated Ridges of Mountains

are,

1. THE Alps, which separate Italy from the neighbouring Provinces, extending themselves over vast Tracts of Land, and stretching out their Arms, or Branches, into distant Countries, viz. thro' France to Spain, where they are called the Pyreneans; and thro' Rhætia, [i. e. the Country of the Grisons] where they are called the Rhetian Mountains; also thro' Hungary, where they are named the Hungarian Mountains; and above Dalmatia, where they receive the Name of the Dalmatian Mountains; from whence they are stretch-

ed thro' Macedonia into [Romania], and even to the Coast of the Black-Sea. But because there is in Dalmatia a confiderable Space between the Alts and the Dalmatian Mountains, the former is reckoned by some to end here. Nevertheless they send out one continued Ridge, which paffeth, with a winding Course, in the Form of a Half-Moon, thro' the whole Length of Italy, and divides it into two Parts even to the Streights of [Messina]; tho' it does not run every where directly forward in one Tract, but here and there fends out collateral Branches that run fideways from it. Several of these Mountains are distinguished by particular Names, by Reason of their Altitude, or for some other Cause, as Monte Masso, Gaurus, Monte di Capua, the burning Mount Vesuvius. &cc.

2. THE Ridge of Mountains in Peru [called the Andes] is the longest in the World. They run in a continued Tract about 800 German Miles, (whereof 15 make a Degree) thro' all South America, from the Equator to the Streights of Magellan, and separate the Kingdom of Peru, from other Provinces. And fo high are the Tops of these Mountains, that they are reported to tire the Birds in their Flight over them; there being but one only Passage over them as yet discovered, and that very difficult. Many of them are covered with perpetual Snow, as well in Summer as in Winter. The Tops of others are hid in the Clouds, and fome are raifed above the middle Region of the Air. Several of the Spaniards, with their Horses, have suddenly expired upon the Tops of these Mountains, in their Passage from Nicaragua to Peru, and growing stiff with the Cold, they, in a Moment, became immoveable as Statues. The Cause of which seems to be no other than the Want of such Air as was fit

CHAP. 10. of Universal Geography. 137

for Respiration. There are also found among this

Ridge of Mountains several that are sulphureous and

(moaking.

3. THERE are many other Ridges of Mountains between *Peru* and *Brafil*, which are stretched out thro' unknown Countries as far as the Streights of *Magellan*, where their Tops are covered with continual Snow, tho' they lie in the Latitude of 52 Degrees.

4. TO these may be added the Ridges of Mountains in *Canada*, and *New England*, whose Tops are also perpetually covered with Snow, tho' they

are not so famous as the rest.

5. MOUNT Taurus, in Asia, was antiently thought to make a Part of the largest and noblest Ridge of Mountains in the World. It begins to shew itself in the Lesser Asia near [the Gulph of Statalia], and runs from West to East, under several Names, thro' divers large Kingdoms, and Countries, even to India; whereby all Asia is divided into two Parts, of which that on the North Side is called Asia intra Taurum, and that on the South, Asia extra Taurum. This Ridge is as it were fenced on either Side with several others that accompany it, among which the most celebrated are the Greater and Lesser Antitaurus, which separate the Greater Armenia from the Lesser; also where Taurus itself passes between Armenia and Mesopotamia, it sends forth many Branches towards the North and South.

6. THE Mountain *Imaüs* is extended North and South, and also East and West, in the Form of a Cross. The North Portion of it, is now called *Alkai*: It is stretched out southward as far as the Borders of *India*, to the very Head of the River Ganges, and is computed in Length about 400 German Miles. It divides [Asiatic Tartary] into two

Parts

7. THE Mountains of Caucasus are about 50 Miles in Breadth, and extend themselves lengthway from the Confines of the Caspian-Sea towards the Euxine-Sea. They are a sure Sea-Mark to those that fail in the Caspian-Sea, to steer their Course by. An Arm of them reaches to Mount Ararat in Armenia, upon which it is said, in Sacred Scripture, the Ark of Noah rested; and the Turks and Persians will have it to be preserved there to this very Day. Ararat is also not far from Mount Taurus, where all these Mountains are contiguous. We shall treat of the Height of Mount Caucasus in Chapter xxx.

8. THE long Range of Hills in China, which comprehends the Damasian Mountains of the Antients towards the West, and the Ottorocoran towards the North. This Range is composed of a vast Number of Mountains, not altogether continued, but here and there affording a Passage between them. The Mountains of Cambodia seem al-

fo to be a Part of this Range.

9. THE Mountains of Arabia are drawn out in three Ranks, whereof the holy Mount Sinai is a Part.

by the innumerable Fictions of the *Greek* Poets. It's Rife is near the western Shore of *Africa*, from whence it stretches itself to the eastward as far as the Confines of *Egypt*. Most of the Rivers in this Continent take their Rise from it; and tho' it lie in the *Torrid Zone* it is cold and covered with Snow in several Places.

tapa in Africa, sendeth out several Branches, which surround almost all Monomotapa, and are distinguished by divers Names, as Zeth, [Gibel, Caph,]

8cc.

&cc. There are almost innumerable other Branches in Africa, feparated one from another only by narrow Passages, infomuch that they all feem to be

Parts of the same Range of Mountains.

12. THE Riphean Mountains, in Europe, run from the White-Sea, or Muscovian-Bay, to the Mouth of the River Oby; from whence they are called fometimes by that Name. The Muscovites call them Weliki Kamenypoys, i. e. the great stony Girdle; because they suppose them to encompass the whole Earth. Near these there is another Ridge of Mountains, which the Russians call Joegoria; they reach from the South Borders of Tartary to the Northern Ocean. Several Rivers take their Rise from them, viz. Witsagda, Necm, Wissera, and Petsiora. These are none of them well represented in Maps, and very often totally omitted. Also between Russia and Siberia there are, besides these, a triple Range of Mountains running from North to South. The first of these the Russians call Cosvinscov Camen, which is two Days in paffing over. The next to this (fome Vallies intervening) is called Chirginscoy Camen, which is also two Days Journey over. The third, being higher than the rest, is named Podvinscoy Camen, and in feveral Places is all the Year round covered with Snow and Fogs, fo that a Paffage is, with great Difficulty, obtained in four Days. The Town of Vergateria, in Siberia, is near this Range.

13. [THE Dofrine Hills,] which separate Sweden from Norway, arise near the South Promontory of Norway, and proceed in feveral Ranges to the farthest Part of Lapland, being alfo distinguished by several Names, as Fillefiel, Do-

fresiel, &c. 14. THE Hercynian Mountains in Germany [now Fiechtelberg Mountains] furround Bohemia; and

140 The Absolute Part SECT. III. and various Ways extend themselves into divers Countries where they have different Names. In

the Dukedom of Brunswic they retain something of their antient Name, being called Der Hark; Mount Brufferus is a Part of this Ridge.

## PROPOSITION II.

In most Islands, and Parts of the Continent that run out into the Sea, the Ridges of Mountains are fo situated as to take their Course thro' the midile of them, and divide them into two Parts.

IN Scotland the Grampian Mountain (or Granfbain as the Inhabitants call it) runs from West to East tho' the middle of this Peninsula; and divides it into two Parts, which very much differ both in the Nature of the Soil, and the Inhabitants. So in the Islands of Sumatra, Borneo, Luconia, Celebes, Cuba, Hispaniola, &c. Chains of Mountains are found which arife gradually to a great Height, from the Sea-Shore to the Inland Parts.

THUS the Mountain Gate, in India, begins at the Extremity of Mount Caucasus, and reaches to Cape Comorin; whereby the Peninsula of India is divided, from North to South, into two Parts, whereof that Part which lies on this Side Gate, towards the Weft, is called Malabar; and the other beyond the Mountain towards the East is called Cormandel. Part of the same Ridge of Mountains is also stretched out into that Part of India which is now called Bengal, and from thence thro' Pegu, Siam, to the extream Parts of Malacca.

THERE is the like Ridge of Mountains in the Peninsula of Cambaya, and in the Island, or Peninsula, of California; also in the procurrent Parts of Africa, there is a Ridge which reaches CHAP. 10. of Univerfal Geography. 141 from the Morass of Zaire to the Cape of Good-Hope. In Italy there are the Apennine Mountains; and the like in Corea, &c.

A S to the Origin of these Ridges, whether they are of the same Date with the Earth, or were afterwards generated from natural Causes, is uncer-

tain (a).

PRO-

(a) The learned Dr Woodaward, in his Essay abovementioned Page 280, proves, that there were Rivers as well as Sea in the Antediluvian Earth, from the great quan-'tities of River-Shells that were ' then brought forth, and left in-' closed among others in the Strata of Stone, &c. And ' if there were Rivers, there ' must needs also have been ' Mountains; for they will not ' flow unless upon a Declivity, and their Sources be raifed above the Earth's ordinary Sur-' face, so that they may run ' upon a Descent. Moses also, ' treating upon the Deluge, ' faith in Gen. vii. 19. &c. · And the waters prevailed ex-' ceedingly upon the earth; and ' all the high hills that were ' under the whole heaven were covered. Fifteen cubits upward, did the waters prevail; and the mountains were covered. And all flesh died: --e all in whose nostrils was the breath of life. Here he f plainly makes thefe Antedilu- vian Mountains the Standards and Measures of the Rife of ' the Water; which they could ' never have been, had they not been standing when it did so friseand overpower the Earth.

' His Intention, in the whole. is to acquaint us, that all Land Creatures whatever, both Men, Quadrupeds, Birds, and Infects, perished, and were destroyed by the ' Water; Noah, only excepted, and they that avere with bim in the ark. And at the fame Time to let us fee the ' Truth and Probability of the Thing: to convince us there was no Way for any one to escape, and particularly that none could fave themselves ' by climbing up to the Tops of the Mountains that then were, he affures us that they, even ' the highest of them, were all covered and buried under Water. Now to fay that there was then no Mountains and that this is meant of Mountains that were not for-' med'till afterwards, makes it ' not intelligible, and indeed ' hardly common Senfe.' Thus far Dr Woodward. But at the universal Deluge, the Mountains in general were defaced, levelled, and diffolved, as it were, and promiscuously mixed with the Waters, which ranfacked and tore up their very Foundations, so as to make one common confused Mass. Therefore these Mountains of our prefent

## PROPOSITION III.

To enumerate the Mountains famous for their Height.

1. THE Pike of Teneriff, which the Inhabitants call Pico de Terraira, is accounted the highest Mountain in the World; and it's Top is plainly perceived at Sea 60 Miles before we come up to it, as was faid in the preceding Chapter. There is no ascending it but in the Months of July and August, for at other Times it is covered with Snow, tho' there is never any feen in the rest of the Island, or in the neighbouring Canaries. It's Top doth plainly appear to be above the Clouds, which are often feen to furround the middle Part; but because it is usually covered with Snow, it is certainly, not elevated above the middle Region of the Air. It requires three Days to ascend this Mountain, whose Vertex is not sharp pointed but plain; from whence, on a clear Day, one may fee distinctly the rest of the Canaries, tho' some of them are fifty Miles remote from it. In the two Months abovemention'd great Quantities of fulphureous Stones are dug out of the Side of this Mountain, and carried into Spain. Scaliger writes, that this Mountain continually vomited out burn-

fent Earth, are not the fame with the Antediluvian Mountains, but were formed at the Deluge, out of the confused Heaps of several forts of Matter, which (when the Cause of the general Devastation ceased) began to curdle as it were, and settle in innumerable Forms and Shapes; some extending themselves into long Ridges, others into round and rugged Shapes;

just as the subsiding Waters happened to dash out, or pile up, their Particles, by washing and hollowing their Sides, or carrying the loose and unsettled Earth, towards the Drains and Sluices which were naturally formed to carry the Water downward to the Ocean. How the Antediluvian Mountains were formed see Chapter vii. Note (f) above.

ing Coals formerly (b). I am ignorant from what Author he had it, and never found any fuch Thing in those I have read.

2. IN one of the Azores, or western Islands, near the Island Fayal, there is found a Mountain called the Pike of St George, from whence the Island itself is called Pico. It is said to be as high as the Pike of Tenerist, or something higher.

3. THE Ridge of the Cordileras, or Andes, in South-America, which separates Peru from other Countries, is one of the vastest and highest Mountains in the World. It is extended from the Streights

of Magellan to Panama.

4. ÆTNA, a Mountain in Sicily; when it casteth forth Fire the Sparks are seen from the Island of Malta, from whence it is supposed to be at least a [German] Mile high; but that this is a Deception of Sight we have shewed in the preceding Chapter.

5. HECLA a Mountain in Iceland.

6. PICO de Adam in the Island of Ceylon.

7. MOUNT Brutterus and Abnoba in Germany.

8. MOUNT Figenojamma in Japan is thought to reach above the Clouds.

- 9. MOUNT Caucasus was thought to be of an incredible Height by the Antients.
- (b) It is very likely this Mountain might burn formerly, for there is a Crater, or Tunnel, on the Top, that produceth a fort of fulphureous Earth, which, being rolled up long-ways, and put to a Candle, will burn like Brimstone; and several Places upon the Ledges of the Pike are even now burning or smoaking; and in some Places, if you turn up the Stones, you will find very

fine Brimstone, or Sulphur, sticking to them. Also at the Bottom there are Stones which shine, and look like Dross that comes out of a Smith's Forge; which, without Doubt, was occasioned by the extream Heat of the Place they came from. This is testified by Mr Edens who made a Journey thither in the Year 1715, which see in Philos. Trans. No. 345. Page 317.

10. PELION [now Petras] a Mountain in Macedonia. Pliny fays, that the Mathematician Dicearchus Siculus meafured this Mountain by the Command, and at the Expence, of fome Princes, and found it to be 1250 Paces, that is 10 Furlongs, or \(\frac{1}{3}\) of a German Mile: and Geminus tells us, that the same Dicearchus found the Mountain Cyllene to be of the same Altitude.

II. MOUNT Athos was thought by Mela to be fo high as to rife above the highest Clouds, and therefore never to be rained upon. This Opinion had it's Rife from the Ashes which were left upon the Altars, erected at the Top of it, being not washed away, but found upon a Heap as they had been left. It runs out with a long Ridge into the Sea. Xerxes, when he made his Expedition to Greece, cut thro' this Mountain in that Place where it is joined to the Continent, and let the Sea in at the Breach, whereby it was made navigable.

12. MOUNT Olympus in lesser Asia, of which

we have treated in the preceding Chapter.

13. CASIUS [now Lison] a Mountain in Asia, which is said by Pliny to the four Miles high.

14. MOUNT Hamus [now Balkan] is faid by

Martianus Capella to be fix Miles high.

15. THE Rock of Sisimethra, Strabo tells us, was found to be fifteen Furlongs high; and the

Rock Sodiane twice the Height.

16. MOUNT Atlas in Africa, which we spoke of before. The Poets feigned it so high, that it supported the Heavens upon it's Shoulders; but Experience hath taught us that it's Height is not fo very confiderable.

# PROPOSITION IV.

To enumerate the remaining Differences of Mountains.

IN the former Propositions we have explained three Differences, viz.

1. SOME are extended in a long Tract, o-

thers are bounded with narrow Limits.

2. SOME run thro' the middle of Countries,

others are extended here and there in them.

3. SOME are of a remarkable Altitude, others of a middle, and fome very low. To these we may add,

4. SOME are fandy, others rocky, fome

chalky, and others of Clay, &c.

5. SOME produce Fountains and Heads of Rivers, others are without them.

6. SOME are adorned with Woods, others

are bare and destitute of Trees.

7. SOME are burning and fmoking, others

without Fire or Smoke.

- 8. SOME Mountains yield Metals, as Gold, Silver, Iron, &c. others produce no fort of Metal.
- 9. SOME are continually covered with Snow, others have none in Summer.

# PROPOSITION V.

To enumerate the burning Mountains, and such as cast out Fire.

SUCH Mountains are called *Vulcanos*, a Name first used by the *Portugueze* Sailors, and now they are commonly so called.

1. THE most famous of these is Mount Ætna, (now Gibel) in Sicily, whose Eruptions of Flame VOL. I.

and Smoke are discovered at a great Distance, by those that fail on the Mediterranean, even as far as the Harbour of Malta, which is 40 German Miles from the Shore of Sicily. Tho' Fire and Smoke are continually vomited up by it, yet at some particular Times, it rages with greater Violence. In the Year 1536 it shook all Suctly, from the first to the twelfth of May: after that, there was heard a most horrible bellowing and cracking, as if great Guns had been fired: then were a great many Houses overthrown throughout the whole Island. When this Storm had continued about eleven Days, the Ground opened in feveral Places, and dreadful Gapings appeared here and there, from which iffued forth Fire and Flame with great Violence, which in four Days confumed and burnt up all that were within five Leagues of Ætna. A little after, the Funnel, which is on the Top of the Mountain, difgorged a great Quantity of hot Embers and Ashes, for three whole Days together, which were not only dispersed throughout the whole Island, but also carried beyond Sea to Italy; and feveral Ships that were failing to Venice, at 200 Leagues diffance suffered Damage (c). Farellus hath given us an Historical Account of the Eruptions of this Mountain, and fays, that the Bottom of it is 100 Leagues in Circuit.

2. HECLA, a Mountain in Iceland, rages fometimes with as great Violence as Ætna, and casts out great Stones. The imprisoned Fire often, by wanting Vent, causes horrible Sounds, like Lamentations and Howlings, which make fome credulous People think it the Place of Hell, where the Souls

of the wicked are tormented.

given us an Historical Account, No. 48. Pag. 967. of the Eruptions of Mount At-

<sup>(</sup>c) Mr Oldenberge hath also na, which see in Philos. Trans-

CHAP. 10. of Universal Geography.

3. VESUVIUS (now Monte de Soma) in Campania, not far from the Town of Naples tho' it be planted with most fruitful Vines, and at other Times yieldeth the best Muscadel Wine; yet it is very often annoyed with violent Eruptions (d).

(d) That the Reader may have a better Idea of these buining Mountains, and their dreatful Eruptions. I shall transcribe (from Philof. Trans. No. 3:4. Pag. 708.) an Extract of a Letter of Mr Edward Berkeley from Naples, giving an Account of the Eruptions of Fire and Smoke, from Mount Vesuvius. Communicated to the Royal Society by Dr John Arbuthnot, M. D. and R. S. S. as follows: ' April 17. 1717. With much · Difficulty I reached the Top of · Vefuvius, in which I faw a vaft aperture full of fmoke, which · hindred the seeing it's Depth and Figure. I heard within ' that horrid Gulph certain odd " Sounds, which feemed to proceed from the Belly of the ' Mountain; a fort of Murmuring, Sighing, Throbbing, Churning, dashing (as it were) · of Waves, and between whiles · a Noise like that of Thunder or Cannon, which was conflantly attended with clatter-' ing, like that of Tiles falling from the Tops of Houses on ' the Streets. Sometimes as the · Wind changed, the Smoke grew thinner, discovering a very ruddy Flame, and the ' Jaws of the Pan, or Crater, · streaked with red, and several

fhades of Yellow. After an

! Hour's stay, the Smoke being

' moved by the Wind, gave ' us short and partial Pro: ' fpects of the great Hollow in the flat Bottom, of which I ' could differn two Furnaces, al-' mest contiguous; that on the ' left, feeming about 3 Yards ' in Diameter, glowed with red ' Flame, and threw up red hot ' Stones, with a hideous Noise, ' which as they fell back caused the forementioned clattering. ' May 8. In the Morning I afcended to the Top of Veluvius a fecond Time, and found a different Face of Things. The Smoke afcending upright, gave a full Prospect of ' the Crater, which as I cou'd ' judge, is about a Mile in ' Circumference, and a hun-' dred Yards deep. A conical ' Mount had been formed fince ' my last Visit in the middle of the Bottom. This Mount ' I could fee was made of the ' Stones thrown up and fallen back again into the Crater. In this new Hill remained the two Mouths or Furnaces already mentioned: that on our left Hand was in the Ver-' tex of the IIill, which it had ' formed round it, and raged ' more violently than before, f throwing up every three or four Minutes, with a dreadful bellowing, a vast Num-' ber of red hot Stones, some-L 2 times

But as the Wind was favour-

Dion Cassius relates, that in the Reign of Vespasian, there was fuch a dreadful Eruption of impetuous Flames, that great quantities of Ashes and sulphureous Smoke were carried not only to Rome by the Wind, but also, beyond the Mediterranean, into Africa

' times, in Appearance, above ' 1000, and at least 300, Foot ' higher than my Head as I ' flood upon the Brink. But ' there being little or no Wind, ' they fell back perpendicular-' ly into the Craier, increasing the conical Heap. The other Mouth was lower in the Side of the same new formed Hill. ' I could difcern it to be filled with red hot liquid Matter, ' like that in the Furnace of a Glass-house, which raged ' and wrought, as the Waves of the Sea, caufing a fhort abrupt Noife, like what may ' be imagined to proceed from a Sea of Quickfilver, dashing among uneven Rocks. This ' fluff would sometimes spew over, and run down the convex Side of the conical Hill, and appearing at first red hot, it changed Colour, and hard- ned as it cooled, shewing the ' first Rudiments of an Eruption, or, if I may fo fay, an Eruption in Miniature. Had the Wind driven in our Face, we had been in no fmall Danger of stifling by the ful-" phureous Smoke, or being ' knocked, on the Head, by ' lumps of molten Minerals, ' which we faw had fometimes fallen on the Brink of the ' Crater, upon those shot from the Gulph at the Bottom.

able, I had an Opportunity to furvey this odd Scene for ' above an Hour and a half together; during which it was very observable, that all the ' Vollies of Smoke, Flame, and burning Stones came only out of the Hole to our left, while ' the liquid stuff in the other ' Mouth wrought and over-' flowed, as hath been already ' described. June 5. After a ' horrid Noise, the Mountain ' was feen at Naples to fpew a ' little out of the Crater. The ' fame continued the 6th. The ' 7th, nothing was observed ' till within two Hours of ' Night, when it began a hi-' deous bellowing, which con-' tinued all that Night, and ' the next Day till Noon, cauf-' ing the Windows, and, as ' fome affirm, the very Houses ' in Naples to shake. From that time it spewed vast Ouantities of molten Stuff to the South, which streamed down the Side of the Mountain, like a Pot boiling over. This Evening I returnd from a Voyage thro' Apulia, and was furprized, paffing by the ' North Side of the Mountain, to fee a great Quantity of ruddy Smoke liealong a huge ' Tract of Sky over the River of molten Stuff, which was itself Africa, and even into Egypt. Moreover, Birds were fuffocated in the Air, and fell down dead upon the Ground, and Fishes perished in the neighbouring Waters, which were made hot and infected by it. There happened another Eruption

itself out of Sight. The 9th, Vesuvius raged less violently; that Night we faw from Naples, a Column of Fire shoot between whiles out of it's Summit. The 10th, when we thought all would have been over, the Mountain grew very outrageous again, roaring and groaning moth dreadfully. You cannot form a juster Idea of this Noise, in ' the violent Fits of it, than by imagining a mix'd Sound made up of the raging of a Tempest, the murmur of a ' troubled Sea, and the roaring 6 of Thunder and Artillery, confused all together. It was very terrible, as we heard it ' in the further End of Naples, ' at the Distance of above 12 ' Miles. This moved my Cu- riofity to approach the Moun-' tain. Three or four of us got into a Boat, and were fet ashore at Torre del Greco, a Town fituated at the Foot of · Vesuvius to the South West, whence we rode four or five · Miles before we came to the burning River, which was a-6 bout Midnight. The roaring of the Vulcano grew exceeding loud and horrible as we approached. I observed a · mixture of Colours in the 6 Cloud over the Crater, green, s yellow, red, and blue; there was likewise a ruddy dismal

' Light in the Air over that ' Tract of Land, where the ' burning River flowed; Afnes ' continually showered on us ' all the Way from the Sea-' Coast. All which Circum-' itances, fet off and augmen-' ted by the horror and nience of the Night, made a Scene the most uncommon and aflonishing I ever saw? which grew still more extraordinary as we came nearer the Stream. ' Imagine a vast Torrent of liquid Fire rolling from the Top down the Side of the ' Mountain, and with irrefiftible Fury bearing down and ' confuming Vines. Olives, Fig-trees, Houses, in a word, every Thing that stood in it's Way. The largest Stream feemed half a Mile broad at least, and five Miles long. I ' walked fo far before my Companions up the Mountain, along the Side of the River of Fire, that I was obliged to retire in hafte, the fulphureous Steam having suprized me, and almost taken away my Breath. During our Return, which was about three o'Clock in the Morning, we constantly heard the murmur and groaning of the Moun-' tain, which between whiles ' would burst out into louder ' Peals, throwing up huge ' spouts of Fire, and burning 'Stones, L 3

in Martial's Time, which he elegantly describes in one of his Epigrams, and laments the sad Change of the Mountain, which he saw first in it's Verdure, and immediately after black with Ashes and Embers. When the Burning ceased, the Rain and Dew watered the Surface of the Mountain, and made these sulphureous Ashes and Embers fruitful, so that they produced a large Increase of excellent Wine; but when the Mountain began to burn again, and to disgorge Fire and Smoke afresh (which sometimes happened within a few Years) then were the neighbouring Fields burnt up, and the High-ways made dangerous to Travellers.

4. A Mountain in Java, not far from the Town of Panacura, in the Year 1586, was shattered to Pieces by a violent Eruption of glowing Sulphur, (tho' it had never burnt before) whereby (as it was reported) 10000 People perished in the underland Fields: it threw up large Stones, and cast them as far as Pancras, and continued for three Days to throw out so much black Smoke, mixed with

Stones, which falling down again, refembled the Stars in our Rockets. Sometimes I observed two, at others three, distinct Columns of Flame, and fometimes one vast one, that feemed to fill the whole · Crater. These burning Co-" lumns, and the fiery Stones, feemed to be shot 1000 Foot e perpendicular above the Sum-" mit of the Vulcano. The 11th at Night, I observed it from a Terrass at Naples, to throw " up inceffantly a vaft Body of Fire and great Stones, to a f furprising Height. The 12th in the Morning, it darkened the Sun with Ashes and & Smoke, causing a fort of E-

' clipse. Horrid Bellowings, this and the foregoing Day, were heard at Naples, whi-' ther Part of the Ashes also reached. On the 13th, the ' Wind changing, we faw a pil-' lar of black Smoke shoot upright to a prodigious Height. 'The 15th in the Morning, ' the Court and Walls of our ' House in Naples were covered ' with Ashes. In the Evening, flame appeared on the mountain thro' the cloud. The 17th, the Smoke appeared much diminished, fat and greafy. The 18th, the whole Appearance ended, the Mountain remaining perfectly quiet without a-' ny visible Smoke or Flame.' Flame

Flame and hot Embers, that it darkened the Face of the Sun, and made the Day appear as dark as

the Night.

- 5. MOUN'T Gonnapi, in one of the Banda Islands, when it had burnt for 17 Years together, in April 1586, broke out with a terrible bellowing Noife, and difgorged fuch large Quantities of great Stones, and thick fulphureous burning Matter all over the Sea and Land, that it threatned Destruction to all that were near it. Hot Ashes and Embers were vomited out with fuch a Force, and in fuch great Quantities, that they covered the great Guns of the Dutch, which were planted upon the Walls of their Citadel, and rendered them unferviceable. Red hot Stones above a Span long, were cast into the Sea, and such a Number of little ones, that finall Ships had fcarcely a free Paffage out of the Harbour. The Water near the Shore was heaved up, and feemed to boil for feveral Hours, as if it had been fet over a Fire; and feveral dead Fishes were found floating upon the Surface.
- 6. MOUNT Balaluanum in Sumatra, vomiteth Flame and Smoke as Ætna doth.
- 7. THE Ground in feveral Places in the Molucca Islands belches out Fire with a raging Noise; but none are fo terrible as the Spiracle in the Island Ternata. The Mountain, which is steep and difficult to ascend, is covered towards the Bottom with thick Woods, but the Top which is elevated to the Clouds, is made bare and rugged by the Fire. The Funnel is a vast Hollow, which goes shelving down, and by Degrees becomes less and less, like the inside of an Amphitheatre; from whence, in Spring and Harvest Time, or about the Equinoxes, when some particular Winds blow, especially from the North, there are cast forth, with a rumbling Noise, Flames mixed with black LA Smoke.

- Smoke, and hot Embers; whereby all the Places far and near are strewed with Ashes. The Inhabitants visit it at some certain Times of the Year, to gather Sulphur, tho' in some Places the Hill cannot be ascended, but by Ropes fastned to Iron Hooks.
- 8. There is an Island about 60 Leagues from the Moluccas, (being one of those that belong to the Moors) which is often all together shaken with Earthquakes and Eructations of Fire and Ashes in abundance; fo that whole Rocks and Mountains are often made red hot by the Heat of the fubterraneous Fire, and burning Stones are blown up into the Air, as large as the Trunks of Trees. When there is a brifker Wind than ordinary, such Clouds of Ashes are blown all over the Country, that People labouring in the Fields are forced to hasten Home, half covered with them; and Boars, and other living Creatures, are found buried in them, after the Storm is over. Fishes near the Sea Shore are poisoned with the Ashes, and so are the Inhabitants if they taste any of the Water wherewith they are mixed. This difasterous black and poisonous Fire breaketh out, from the Top of a Mountain, with a difmal rumbling Noise like Thunder-claps, or the report of great Guns, and bringeth up with it abundance of Ashes, and burnt Pumice Stones.

9. THERE is a Mountain in Japan, which continually vomiteth forth Flames; where it is reported the Devil shews himself, surrounded with a bright Cloud, to some particular Persons after they have, for Personmance of their Vows, kept themselves lean for a long Time.

10. THERE are several others Vulcanos in the Japan Islands; about seventy Miles from Firando there is one, and in a small Island between Tanaxima and the Seven Sisters (Islands so named)

CHAP. 10. of Universal Geography. 153 there is another, which now and then is observed

to burn, and at other Times to fmoke.

one of the *Philippines*, there are found fome small Vulcanos; and one in *Marinda*, which is a Part of the said Islands.

12. IN Nicaragua a Province of America, thirty Leagues from the Town of Leon, there is a Mountain, of a vast Height, which disgorgeth such quantities of Flame, that they may be perceived

at ten Miles distance.

- 13. I N the *Peruvian* Range of Mountains (called the *Cordilleras*) there are in feveral Places burning Rocks and Mountains, fome vomiting Fire and Flame, and others smoaking; especially those in *Carrapa* a Province of *Popaiana*, which are perceived in clear Weather to emit a deal of Smoke.
- 14. NEAR Arequipa, a Town in Peru, about ninety Leagues from Lima, there is a Mountain which continually vomits fulphureous Fire, which, the Inhabitants are afraid, will fome Time or other burst and overthrow the Town adjacent to it.
- 15. IN Peru, near the Vale called Mulaballo, about fifty Leagues from Quito, there is a Vulcano, or fulphureous Mountain, which, fome Time fince, burft and threw out great Stones, with a dreadful Noise, which frighted People even at a great Diftance.
- 16. I N one of the Islands called *Papoys*, which La Maire discovered (tho' perhaps it be not an Island, but is joined to the eastern Shore of New Gninea) there is a Mountain which, at that Time, burnt and smoked.
- 17. THERE are feveral Mountains (as the Muscovites tell us) in the Country of the Ton-Guisins,

fins, upon the East of the River Jenisia, some Weeks Journey from the River Oby, which produce Vulcanos and smoking Mountains.

18. THERE are also some of this fort near the River *Pefida* beyond the Country of the *Ton*-

Guisins.

19. THERE is a Mountain in Fez, called Beni-Gua-zeval, which hath a Cave in the Side

of it, that vomiteth out Fire.

20. IN *Croatia*, not far from the Sea-Shore near the Town of *Apollonia*, there is a rocky Mountain, from whose Top there often breaks out Fire and Smoke; and, in the adjacent Places,

feveral of the Springs are hot.

THERE are also some Mountains which have left off burning; fuch as that in the Island Queimoda upon the Shore of Brasil, not far from the Mouth of the Silver River, or Rio de la Plata, which burnt formerly, but now ceases. Likewise the Mountains in Congo or Angola; also those in the Azores (especialy in Tercera and St Michael) which used formerly to burn in several Places, but at present only emit, now and then, Smoke and Vapours; whence they are annoyed with more frequent Earthquakes. The Island of St Helena and Ascension produce Earth which seems to be composed of Dross, Ashes, and burnt Cinders; so that in Time past it is probable the Mountains in these Islands burned; and further, because in these, as well as in the Azores, there are found fulphureous Earths and Slags, like the Recrements of Smithy Coal, which are every Way fit to take Fire, and make Smoke; it will be no wonder if new Vulcanos should, some Time hence, be kindled and break forth in these Islands; for the Cause of these burning Mountains is a sulphureous and bitumiCHAP. 10. of Universal Geography. 155 bituminous Matter, which is contained and kindled in them (e).

(e) Earthquakes and Vulcanos are both produced from the fame Cause; which may be thus explained. Those Countries which yield great store of Sulphur and Nitre, or where Sulphur is fublimed from the Pyrites, are by far the most injured and incommoded by Earthquakes; for where there are such Mines they must send up Exhalations, which meeting with fubterraneons Caverns, they must flick to the Arches of them, as Soot does to the Sides of our Chimnies, where they mix themselves with the Nitre or Saltpeter, which comes out of these Arches, in like manner as we see it come out of the Infide of the Arch of a Bridge, and fo makes a kind of Crust which will very eafily take Fire. There are feveral ways by which this Crust may take Fire, viz. 1. By the inflammable Breath of the Pyrites, which is a kind of Sulphur that naturally takes Fire of itself. 2. By a Fermentation of Vapours to a degree of Heat, equal to that of Fire and Flame. 3. To the falling of fome great Stone, which is undermined by Water, and striking against another, produces some Sparks which fet Fire to the combustible Matter that is near; which being a kind of natural Gun-Powder, at the Appulse of the Fire, goes off (if I may fo fay)

with a fudden Blast or violent Explosion, rumbling in the Bowels of the Earth, and lifting up the Ground above it, fo as fometimes to make miferable Havock and Destruction. 'till it gets Vent or a Discharge. Burning Mountains and Vulcanos are only fo many Spiracles ferving for the Discharge of this fubterranean Fire, when it is thus preternaturally affembled. And where there happens to be fuch a Structure and Conformation of the interior Parts of the Earth, that the Fire may pass freely and without Impediment from the Caverns therein, it affembles unto these Spiracles, and then readily and eafily gets out, from Time to Time, without shaking or disturbing the Earth. But where fuch Communication is wanting, or the Passages not sufficiently large and open, fo that it cannot come at the faid Spiracles without first forcing and removing all Obstacles, it heaves up and shocks the Earth, till it hath made it's Ways to the Mouth of the Vulcano; where it rusheth forth, fometimes in mighty Flames, with great Velocity, and a terrible bellowing Noife. See Woodward's Effay Page 157, 158. Robault's Physics Part 3. Chap. 9. Sect. 23, 24. Philof-Tranf. No 157. Pag. 512.

## PROPOSITION VI.

Some Ranges of Mountains afford no Apertures, as others afford many; and some are discontinued but in one or two Places.

THESE Streights, or Passages, were formerly called Thermopylæ, of which the most samous are, 1. The Thermopylæ of Mount Oeta [or Banina] in Thessalia, [now called Bocca de Lupo] which gave Name to the rest. 2. The Caspian Streights, thro' which there is a Passage between the Caspian Mountains. 3. The Passage between the Caspian Mountains. 3. The Passage thro' the Ridge of the Cordilleras in Peru. 4. The Passage thro' the Mountains on the West-side of the Arabian Gulph, by which Merchandize is carried from Abyssinia into Arabia. 5. The two Passages thro' Mount Caucasus, &c.

### PROPOSITION VII.

When a Mountain runs out into the Sea, or feems [to Mariners] to overtop the rest of the Country, it is called a Promontory, Cape, or Head-land, The most famous are,

1. THE Cape of Good Hope at the extream Point of Africa, which must be doubled by those that fail into India.

2. CAPE Villory at the further end of the

Streights of Magellan.

3. CAPE Verd, the most western Point of Africa, where the Coast begins to wind towards the East.

4. CAPE Vincent in Spain.

5. THE Promontory of Atlas was, some Ages ago, called a Head-land by Mariners, because they supposed it unpassable, or that if any sailed

CHAP. 10. of Universal Geography. 157 failed beyond it they could not return safe; wherefore is was the utmost Bound of their Navigation on the African Coast. Other Promontories may be seen in Maps.

## PROPOSITION VIII.

To Mountains are opposed Chasms, deep Pits, and Caves, which are found in some Places of the Earth.

THERE is a stinking sulphureous Cave in Ireland, which was formerly very samous, now called St Patrick's Purgatory; and in Italy there is that called Grotta del Cane (f). Leo Africanus mentions one which emits Fire on a Mountain in Fez, called Beni-gua-zeval.

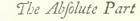
IN Bardesay, an Island adjacent to the Principality of Wales in Britain, there is a Rock near the Sea in which there is a Cave, unto which if you apply your Ear, you will hear the Strokes

of a Hammer, the blowing of Bellows, and the filing of Iron, as if it were in a Smith's Shop.

NOT far from the Town of Besse in Aquitain, there is a Cave, called by the Natives Du Souley, in which there is heard a Noise like Thunder in the Summer Season.

IN feveral Places there are found among Mountains, Vallies of fuch a prodigious Depth, that they strike the Beholders with Horror, and cause a Giddiness in the Head.

(f) See Sturmius Philof-Exercit. 11. de Terræ Mot. Chap. 3. where some of the most eminent Specus's are enumerated, and some of their Uses, viz. that they serve for Spiracles and Funnels to the Countries where they are to vent and discharge the Damps and Vapours which would otherwise, being imprisoned, occasion frequent Succussions, and dreadful Convulsions of the Earth. See the Note above. And for more to this purpose, see the Philosophical Transactions, and French Memoirs: passim.





### CHAP. XI.

# Of Mines, Woods, and Defarts.

INES, Woods, and Defarts, make several Tracts of the Earth remarkable, of which, tho' but little can be faid, yet it will not be unneceffary for the more perfect Knowledge of the Parts of the Earth's Superficies, to confider these Places, and to trace out their Situations, which we shall briefly do in this Chapter.

### PROPOSITION I.

Mines are Places in the Earth, out of which Metals, Minerals, and other Kinds of Earth are dug.

SO many different Kinds of Fossils as there are, fo many various Names have their Mines, viz. Gold-Mines, Silver-Mines, Copper-Mines, Iron-Mines, Coal-Mines, Salt-Mines, and fuch as produce Gems, &c.

THE most celebrated Gold and Silver-Mines,

1. THOSE of Peru, and Castella del Oro, which are the richest in the World, yielding Gold and Silver in abundance, and not being destitute of other Metals; infomuch that the Natives of Peru, and the Spaniards, used to boast, that this Kingdom was founded upon Gold and Silver. Girava, a Spanish

Writer affirms, that there were formerly Mines about the Town of Quito, which produced more Gold than Earth. And when the Spaniards made their first Expedition into this Golden Country, they found feveral Houses, especially in the Regal City Cusco, which were all covered over within and without with Plates of massy Gold. And the Officers of the Peruvian Forces, not only wore Silver Armour, but all their Arms were made of pure Gold. The most rich and advantageous Mine of Silver is in the Mountains of Potofi, where 20000 Workmen are daily employed to dig it, and carry it up at least 400 Steps. These Mines produce that valt Quantity of Gold and Silver, which the King of Spain receives out of America every Year, to the Mortification of other Kings and Potentates; and which, he therefore keeps fortified with strong Forts and Garrisons.

2. THERE are excellent rich Mines of Silver in the Japan Islands, whence they are called by the Spaniards, the Silver Islands. There are also some Mines of Gold sound there; but these are not so rich as sormerly.

3. THERE were more plentiful Gold-Mines

formerly in Arabia, than at present.

4. IN the Mountains of Persia, and in China,

there are fome Silver-Mines.

5. IN Guinea there are feveral Mountains, that produce Gold, but they are remote from the Shore, and the Gold-Dust that is brought from thence, is not dug out of the Ground, but gathered up and down by the Natives. Their in-land Kings are however said to possess each his Mine, the Product of which he sells to the Neighbouring Merchants, and they again to others, till it reaches the Sea-Shore, where it is exchanged with the Europeans.

6. IN Monomotapa, there are found rich Mines of Gold and Silver, and also in Angola, both which are thought to be Parts of one continued Vein.

7. GERMANY excels the rest of the Kingdoms of Europe for plenty of Mines, of which some produce small Quantities of Gold, others abundance of Silver, and a great many of them Copper, Iron, Lead, Vitriol, Antimony, &c. about which confult

the Descriptions of Germany.

8. SWEDEN is enriched with the best Copper-Mine of any hitherto discovered; it is in a vast high Mountain, which they call Kopperberg, out of which as much Copper is dug as makes up a third Part of the King's Revenue. Here are also Iron-Mines, and some Silver-Mines, but they scarcely

defray the Expence of digging them.

9. THERE are Mines of precious Stones found in the Island of Ceylon, and also in Congo (where there is a filver-Mine, and fo much Marble, that the Earth under Ground is thought to be all Marble) and in Peru, about Portovejo in Smaragdina) and in Guiana, near the Coast of which there is a fmall Island, called St Maria, which yields abundance of Gold, even 100 Pound Weight every Year, if we may believe the Dutch. In the Kingdom of Golunda, there is a Mine which yieldeth precious Stones, particularly Diamonds in abundance, but it is not now dug.

10. IN Chili, there are Mines yielding Gold, Silver, and Gems, but the warlike Inhabitants, fetting more by Iron Weapons than Gold or Silver, have partly killed, and partly driven away, the Spaniards, and demolished the Mines that were but

newly begun.

II. THE Mand Madagascar abounds in Iron and Tin, with a moderate Quantity of Silver, a little Gold, but no Lead. Wherefore the Natives value Lead Spoons above Silver ones.

12. IN

12. IN the Island of Sumatra, it is reported, that there are rich Mines of Gold, Silver, Brass, and Iron; and that the King in one Year (viz. 1620) received into his Treasure 1000 Pound Weight of Gold.

13. IN the *Philippine* Islands, and in *Java*, *Hi-fpaniola*, *Cuba*, and others; there are found Mines of Gold, Silver, Copper, and Iron: and in the Mountains of *Siam* there is got Gold, Silver, and Tin.

14. THERE are Mines of Salt in Poland at Pochnia, four Miles from Cracow; (where huge Lumps of transparent white Salt are cut out of the Ground) in Transitvama, in the County of Tyrol in Spain, in Lesser Asia, and in Places near the Caspian Sea, not far from the River Wolga, over-against the Island Kistowat, where the Russians dig their Salt and boil it to a more pure Substance, and after transport it to all Parts of Russia. In Cuba, there is a whole Mountain of Salt. All the Mountains in the Island of Ormus, at the Mouth of the Persian Gulph, are of Salt, which may be gathered in any Part of them, in fuch great Quantities, that the very Walls of their Houses are built of crystalline Salt. In a Valley in Peru, about eighteen Miles from Lima to the Northward, are found deep and large Pits of Salt, where every one may take away what Quantity he pleases, because it continually increaseth, and seemeth impossible to be exhausted. In Africa there is no other Salt used, but such as is dug out of Pits, or Quarries, like Marble, of a white, greenish, or Ash, Colour. All India fetch their Salt from the great Salt-Mines of Bagnagar in Cormandel, &c. We shall treat of Salt-Springs in another Chapter.

# PROPOSITION II.

A Wood is a multitude of Trees extended over a large Trast of Land, which spring up without planting, and grow without being cultivated.

SEVERAL Woods produce only one fort of Trees, from which they receive their Names; fo that as there is a great Variety in Trees, there is also the same in Woods, viz. Palm Woods, Oak Woods, Ofier Woods, Beech Woods, &c. Groves and Forests, are also thus distinguished. Divers Countries, especially those more remote, produce different Sorts of Woods. In Africa, about Cape Verd, there are whole Woods of Lemon and Orange-Trees, which the Sailors may pluck for a very finall Matter. In France, there are whole Woods of Chesnut-Trees: In Ceylon there are Woods of Trees, whose Bark yieldeth Cinnamon: In the Molucca Islands, there grow Clove-Trees: In the Banda Islands, there groweth plenty of Nutmegs: In Brazil there groweth a hard fort of Wood, which we call Brazil Wood: In Africa, especially in Numidia, there grow Grapes, of which are made Raifins of the Sun: In the Island Madagascar, and in other Places of India, there are Trees which bear Tamarinds: In Mount Lebanon there are Cedars, and whole Woods of them in Japan; of which they make Masts of Ships. In Spain, France, and Italy, there are whole Woods of Olive and Myrtle Trees. In Germany there are Woods that produce Fir, Oak, Alder, Beech, Pine, Juniper, Maple, Poplar, Ash, and Elm.

THE most noted Woods are, the *Hercynian* Forest, which formerly overspread almost all *Germany*, and at this Day taketh up large Tracts of Land in several Countries, and under several Names.

CHAP. II. of Universal Geography. 163

The ancient Caledonian Wood in Scotland, with feveral others in other Countries; especially in Norway, where there grow more large Trees than in any other Country, and from whence all Europe procures Matts for their Shipping. Lithuania is alfo overspread with Woods and Forests; from whence large Taxes are raifed for the king of Poland.

# PROPOSITION III.

Defarts are vast Trasts of Land uninhabited by Men.

THESE are of two forts, fuch whose Soil is barren and unfruitful, properly called Defarts; and fuch whose Ground is fertile enough, but are nevertheless said to be defart, because they are uncultivated by Men. In Muscovy, and in Places near the Caspian Sea, along the Banks of the Wolga, there are large Tracts of fertile and fat Meadow Ground, which lie defart and uncultivated; in the former Place, by reason of it's Plenty, and the Laziness of the Inhabitants: And in the latter, by the Wars of Tamerlane, when these Countries were laid waste, and depopulated. But fuch as these are improperly called Defarts.

THERE are four kinds of Defarts (properly fo called) viz. sandy Desarts, marshy Desarts, stony Defarts, and beathy Defarts; which last produce Woods and Forests in several Places, and are

more useful and easy to be cultivated.

I. THE Defarts of Africa are almost all fandy, and there is not any part of the Earth fo much over-run with Defarts. Those in Libya surround all Egypt; and are accounted the largest upon Earth.

The Absolute Part SECT. III.

2. THE Defarts of Arabia, are some of them fandy, and others frony: the greatest is vulgarly called the Sand-Sea.

3. THE Defarts about the Mountain Imaüs. The sandy Defart of [Xamo] in Mongal, where the rich Kingdom of Cathaia formerly was (tho' falfly) supposed to be.

4. THE Defarts of Cambodia.

164

5. THE rocky Defarts of Nova Zembla.6. THE Defarts of Norway, Lapland, Sweden, and Finland.

7. THE Defarts of Germany, are all Heath; hence those in Lunenburg, are called Lunenburg-Heath, &c.





# SECT. IV.

Containing HYDROGRAPHY; which is explained in fix Chapters.

#### CHAP. XII.

Of the Division of the Ocean by the the Interposition of Lands.

AVING treated of the Division of the Earth, and it's Parts, in the foregoing Chapters; Order requires that we also consider the Situation and Division of the WATERS, which make the other Part of the Terraqueous Globe, and explain such of their Properties as belong to Geography.

IN the fecond Proposition of Chapter vii, we divided the Waters into four Species, viz. 1. The Ocean and Seas. 2. Rivers and fresh Water. 3. Lakes and Marshes. 4. Mineral Waters. In this Chapter we shall Discourse of the Division

of the Ocean.

# PROPOSITION I.

The Ocean, in a continued Extent, encompasseth the whole Earth, and allit's Parts, nor is it's Supersicies any where interrupted, or altogether broken by the interposed Earth; only a larger Trast of Sea, or a wider Communication is in some Places wanting.

THE Truth of this Proposition cannot be proved but by Experience, which is chiefly gained M 2 by

by failing round the Earth, which had been often attempted and happily accomplished; first by the Spaniards under Capt. Magellan, who first discoveed the Streights, called by his Name; then by the English, viz. by Sir Francis Drake, Sir Thomas Cavendish, and others; after by the Dutch, &c.

THE Antients never doubted that the Ocean was thus continued; for they supposed the old World to be raised above the Waters, and every where furrounded thereby (and some of them thought it floated). But when America was difcovered (which is extended in a long Tract from North to South, and feems to hinder the Continuation of the Ocean) and also the Arctic and Antarctic Continent, then they began to think otherwise; for they imagined, that America was joined to some Part of the South Continent (which was not unlikely) in like Manner as most of our modern Geographers, suppose that North America is joined to Groenland. If both these Conjectures had been true, then indeed the Ocean had not encompassed the whole Earth. But Magellan removed all Doubts and Scruples about it, by discovering, in the Year 1520, the Streights between America and the South Continent, which join the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. What therefore the Antients happened to stumble upon, by a wrong way of arguing, we have found out to be a real Truth by Experience. The fame may be faid about Africa; for the Antients, without any Hesitation, supposed it to be bounded to the Southward by the Ocean, and not to be extended fo far beyond the Equator, as it really is; but when the Portuguese had failed along the western Coast of Africa, and found it to be extended a great way beyond the Equator, it was questioned whether Africa could be failed round (so far as to afford a Passage to India), that is, whether Africa was extended Southward or encom-

encompassed by the Ocean. But this Doubt was also removed by Vasco di Gramma; who, in the Year 1497, first failed round the most fouthern Promontory of Africa, called, The Cape of Good-Hope; which Name it had received from John II. King of Portugal, in the Yeaf 1494, when Barthel Diaz (who first returned from it, tho' he did not double the Cape for want of Provisions, and by Reason of tempestuous Weather) had given him a large Account of the stormy troubled Sea about this Promontory.

## PROPOSITION II.

The Ocean, taken altogether, is formed by the Land into several Portions, of which there are three Species, viz. 1. Oceans, or great Seas. 2. Bays or Gulphs. 3. Streights.

1. THE Word Ocean is taken in a double Sense, sometimes for that general Collection of Waters which furround the whole Earth; and very often for a Part of that Collection, which is joined on both sides to other Parts by broad Tracts. Thus we say, The Atlantic Ocean, The German Ocean, The Ethiopic Ocean, and Indian Ocean. We shall here use the Word Ocean sometimes in the later Sense according to Custom, instead of Sea; which also is a Part of the whole Ocean, because the Word Sea is often used in a somewhat different Senfe, as will be shewed by and by.

2. A BAY, or Gulph, is a Part of the Ocean which flows between two Shores, and is every where environed with Land, except where it communicates with other Bays, or the main Ocean. It is

very often called a Sea.

A STREIGHT is a narrow Paffage, either joining a Gulph to the Neighbouring Ocean,

M 4

or one Part of the Sea or Ocean to another. These Differences are found in the Ocean, as will appear from what follows.

### PROPOSITION III.

The main Ocean is divided into four large and particular Parts, which are also each of them called Oceans, and answer to the four Continents, or great Islands of the Earth. These are,

- 1. THE Atlantic Ocean, which is placed between the western Shore of the old World, and the eastern Shore of the new World. It is also called the western Ocean because it lieth to the westward of Europe. It is best divided into two Parts, by the Equator; whereof the one is contiguous to the Hyperborean Ocean, the other to the Icy or South Sea.
- 2. THE Pacific Ocean, or great South Sea, which is placed between the western Shore of America and Asia, and is extended to China, and the Philippine Islands.

3. THE Hyperborean, or northern Ocean, a-

bout the ArElic Continent.

4. THE fouthern Ocean, about the South Continent, of which the *Indian* Ocean is a Part.

OTHER Geographers divide the main Ocean into four Parts, after this Manner: They make the Atlantic one Part, but do not extend it beyond the Equator, where they begin the Ethiopic: They also reckon with us the Pacific, and add thereto the Indian; but we, in our Division, have more regard to the four great Continents. Some make but three Parts, viz. The Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian; but then they extend the Atlantic further. Let every one use what Division he likes best, it is

CHAP. 12. of Universal Geography. 169 no great matter which; for these are not made by Nature, but contrived by the Fancy.

# PROPOSITION IV.

Some Parts of the Ocean borrow a Name from the Countries which they bound.

THUS we say the German Ocean, the British Sea, the Indian Ocean, the Gulph of Venice, &c.

# PROPOSITION V.

Some Bays are oblong, others broad; some primary, and others secondary; the sormer slow out of the Ccean, the latter out of some other Bay: and such may be called Arms or Branches. The oblong are,

1. THE Mediterranean Sea, which breaks out from the Ocean, between Spain and Barbary; and runs a long space between Europe and Africa, even as far as Syria, Asia-minor and Thracia. The entrance is called by way of Eminence the Streights. Hence to fail up the Streights, is to visit by Sea, Italy, Greece, Syria, Sicily, Venice, and the rest of the Countries that lie upon the Coast of this Bay.

THERE are feveral fecondary Bays, or Arms, which proceed from it, viz. the Adriatic Sea, or

Gulph of Venice, the Archipelago, &c.

I'T may be reasonably enquired, whether the Euxine Sea be a Part of this Bay. Of which see

Chap. xv.

THE Mediterranean had divers Names from the feveral Coasts it reaches; on the North it hath Spain, France, Italy, Sicily, Sclavonia, Greece, Candia, Romania, Asia-minor; on the South it hath Morocco, Fez, Tunis, Tripoli, Egypt. From whence it is called the Gulph of Lyons, the Tuscan Sea, the Ionian

Ionian Sea, the Levant, &c. It is extended from West

to East, and receives into it many Rivers.

2. THE Baltic (or East Sea, improperly so called) breaketh out from the Ocean between Zeeland and Gotland, part of the Continent of Sweden, and also between Zeeland and Jutland, from whence it flows a long way to the South-East, and afterwards winding to the northward, it reaches a prodigious length between the Provinces of Mecklenburg, Pomerania, Courland, and Livonia, on the East; and on the West, Sweden and Lapland. It sends out two Arms, viz. the Bothnic Bay, and the Gulph of Finland; to which may be added the Livonian Sea, or Gulph of Riga. It receiveth feveral great Rivers.

3. THE Arabian Gulph, or Red Sea, floweth out of the Indian Ocean between Aden, a Town in Arabia, and Cape Musledon in Africa, having Africa on the West, and Arabia on the East. It runs to the Eastward as far as the Isthmus of Africa, to the Town of Suez, where there is a Harbour for the Turkish Fleet, and receiveth only a few small Rivers, but not one out of Africa. It is extended from the

South-East to the North-West.

4. THE Persian Gulph [or Gulph of Balsora] floweth out of the Indian Ocean, near the Island of Ormus, from the South-East to the North-West, between Persia on the East, and Arabia on the West, as far as the ancient Chaldaa, where it receiveth the Euphrates and Tigris, joined a little before in one Chanel; but few Rivers of note besides.

5. THE Gulph of California, or Red-Sea, runs from South to North, between the West of Mexico in America and California, and ends at Tatonteac, an unknown Part of America. Modern Discoverers will have California to be an Island; and this not to be a Gulph or Bay, but a Streight or Sea (a).

<sup>(</sup>a) See Note (e) Chap. viii.

CHAP. 12. of Universal Geography. 171

6. THE Gulph of Nankin [or Gang] runs northward, between Corea and China, towards Tartary, where fome place Tenduc, in the Kingdom of Cathaia: others will have Corea to be an Island. It receiveth but a few Rivers.

TO these may be added several lesser Bays, such as the Gulph *Cambaya*, &c. Only the two first of these, viz. The *Mediterranean* and the *Baltic*, afford

fecondary Bays.

# PROPOSITION VI.

The broad and open Bays are seven in Number, viz.

1. THE Gulph or Sea of Mexico, which flows out of the Atlantic Ocean from East to West, between North and South America, where it is stopped by the long Ishmus that joins these two Continents, and separates the Atlantic from the Pacific Ocean. It receivesh a great many Rivers, and for Multitude of Islands may compare with the Archipelago.

2. THE Gulph of Bengal, or Ganges, strikes out from the Indian Ocean, towards the North, between India and the Peninsula of Malacca; it is bounded by Orixa, Bengal, Pegu, &c. Kingdoms of India, and receives, besides the Ganges, a great

many famous Rivers.

3. THE Bay of Siam, between Cambodia and Malacca, is extended northward to the Kingdom

of Siam.

4. THE White-Sea, or Russian Gulph, flows from the Northern Ocean towards the South, between Lapland, and the remote Shores of Russia. It stretcheth out an arm towards Lapland, and endeth at Archangel in Muscovy; which is a Mart much frequented by the English and Dutch. It receives several great Rivers.

5. THE

5. THE Lantchidal Sea, is a Bay between [New Holland] and New Guinea; two Peninfula's of the South Continent. It is extended fouthward, and terminated at Carpentaria.

6. THERE is another Gulph a little to the westward of the last, between [Nuyt's Land] and Van Diemen's Land (two Sea Captains, by whom

these Parts were discovered).

7. HUDSON's Bay is bounded by New Britain, New France, New Denmark, &c. and runneth out of the Northern Ocean. To which may be added, Baffin's Bay, the Bay of Bifcay, &c.

### PROPOSITION VII.

Streights either join the Ocean to the Ocean, or the Ocean to a Bay, or one Bay to another.

OF Streights we reckon fifteen, viz.

- 1. THE Streights of Magellan, tho' they may yield to others for Antiquity, are nevertheless, accounted very famous for their exceeding long Reach, thro' which there is a free Passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. The Streight is in Length, from East to West one Hundred and ten Leagues; but the Breadth is various, in some Places two Leagues, one League, and in fome Places but a quarter of a League. Magellan first discovered it, and failed thro' it in the Year 1520. Tho' it is reported, that Vascus Nunnius of Valboa, had before (viz. in the Year 1513) taken notice of it when he failed that Way, to make Discoveries to the Southward. It lieth in 52 degr. 30 min. South Latitude, between Patagon, a Part of South America on the North, and the Islands of Terra del Fuego on the South.
- 2. A little further, to the fouthward, are the Streights of La Maire, which are much shorter than those

those of Magellan. They have a Part of the South Continent on the East, and the Islands of Terra del Fuego one the West. A Passage is more expeditioully made thro' these into the great South-Sea, than the other. They lie in 54 degr. 30 min. South Latitude.

3. THE Streights of Manila, between Luconia and Mindanao, and others of the Philippine Islands, are faid to be one hundred Leagues in Length, and are a very dangerous Passage to Ships, by reason of dreadful Quick-fands in feveral Places. They are extended from East to West, and join, in part, the Pacific to the Indian Ocean, which are also not far from thence, joined by broader Streights in many Places.

4. THERE are feveral other Streights among the Indian Isles, and between them and the Continent; as between Ceylon and India; between Sumatra and Malacca; between Sumatra and Java, &c.

5. THE Streights of Waygats, thro' which there is supposed to be a Passage from the Russian or North Sea, into the Tartarian Ocean; but it is fo flut up with Ice, that it never could be failed thro' by the Europeans (b). It lies between Samoieda and Nova Zembla.

6. THE Icy Sea, between Nova Zembla and

Spitsbergen, or New Greenland.

7. DAVIS's Streights, between North America and Greenland, have not been yet failed thro'; therefore we are in a doubt, whether it be a Streight or a narrow Sea.

8. FORBISHER's Streights, which afford a Passage from the Atlantic Ocean into Hudson's Bay.

9. THE Streights of Anian, between North America and Tartary in Asia, through which there is faid to be a Passage between the Tartarian Ocean.

and the Pacific Sea; but this is as yet unfettled. They who have failed in that Part of the Pacific Ocean pretend to be certain, that there are Streights, or Sea, both between America and Tartary, and also between America and Greenland, by reason that for seven hundred Leagues from Japan towards North America, the Carrents fet strongly from the North North-West, tho' the Wind be variable, and blow from other Points of the Compais: but when they are come within one hundred Leagues of New Spain, these Currents cease, and others flow to the Northward, as if it were to some broad Sea on the North of New Spain. Also in these seven hundred Leagues failing, Whales are daily feen, and other forts of Fish, that are known to delight in Streights and narrow Seas, which it is probable, come from the Streights of Anian, to that Part of the Pacific Ocean; because they are not found elsewhere (c). However, several of our modern Geographers take no notice of these Streights, but place a vast unknown Ocean, between Tartary or Corea and America.

10. THE Streights of Gibraltar, thro' which the Atlantic Ocean gusheth into the Mediterranean Sea. They lie between Spain and Africa, and are about two Leagues over at the straitest Place, but much longer. The Ancients believed that there

(c) It is certain the Sea of Corea and Japan, is annexed to the Tartaric Ocean, and also to the Sea of Greenland; because that some Hollanders affirm, (who were shipwreck'd upon Corea, a Peninsula of China) that they faw there a Whale, upon whose Back stuck a Harpon Iron of Gascony, which not being questioned by any, it is most probable to be conjectured, that this

Whale passed from Spitsberg thro' the nearest Arm of the Sea, rather than thro' the more remote. But be it how it will. we may hence fafely conclude, that the Sea which lies beyond Japan and Spitsberg, is passable; and thro' more perhaps than one Arm or Chanel, by which they communicate. See Note (a) Chap. viii. and Philof. Transact. abridged by Low thorp. Vol. iii. Page 612.

were no fuch in the first Ages of the World, but that they were made by the breaking of the Sea

upon the Land.

lie between Zeeland and Schonen, thro' which the Atlantic, in part, flows into the Baltic, where they are straited. They are about half a German Mile over. Near to this there are two other small Streights, the one between Zeeland and Funen, and the other called the Belt, between Funen and Jutland.

Mouth of the Arabian Gulph, near the Sea-Port Aden, thro' which there is a Passage out of the

Indian Ocean into the Red-Sea.

13. THE Streights [of Ormus] at the Mouth of the Persian Gulph, are not properly so called, because they are but little narrower than the Gulph itself.

14. THE Hellespont, a Streight famous among the Grecians, thro' which there is a Passage from the Archipelago to the Propontis; near to this there is another narrow Sea, called the Thracian Bosphorus, which joins Propontis to the Euxine Sea.

15. THE Faro, or Streights, of Mellina, be-

tween Italy and Sicily.

MANY have been of opinion, that there were Streights somewhere northward of Virginia, which is in 40 degr. North Latitude, whereby the Atlantic is joined to the Pacific Ocean, and thro' which they might find a free and open Passage to China, and the Philippine Islands: but this, in the Year 1609, was in vain attempted thro' Hudson's Streights.

THUS have we explained and pointed out the Parts of the Ocean, diftinguished by the Situation of the Land, in like manner as in Chapter viii, we described the different Plans of Countries, occasioned by the breaking in of the Ocean. That the Geo-

grapher

grapher may keep all these in his Memory, it will not be unserviceable to him to trace out the Perimeter of the Sea Coast, and to take a transient View of the Shores and Bounds of each Country, and also how they are situated, and joined one to another.

# PROPOSITION VIII.

[To trace out the Sea Coasts, that environ the four Quarters of the Earth, viz. The old and new World, and the North and South Continent.]

1. THE old World, (comprehending Europe, Asia, and Africa,) is extended northward to the Streights of Waygats, adjoining to Samoieda; upon the West of which is the Kingdom of Muscovy, where the White Sea is received into a large Bay from the North; on the further Side of which is Lapland, and next to that, on the West, Norway, whose Shore runs North and South; then winding to the East, we came to the Shore of Gotland and Schonen, where there is a Gulph that receiveth the Baltic Sea, which is bounded by Sweden, Finland, Livonia, Prussia, Courland, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Holstein, and Jutland; then turning fouthward on the further Side of Jutland and Holftein, we find the Shores of Westphalia, Holland, Flanders, France, and Spain; where there is another Inlet that receives into a vast Bay the Mediterranean Sea, which is hemmed in by Spain, France, Italy, Sclavonia, Greece, Romania, Asia minor, Egypt, Barbary, and Morocco, over-against the Spanish Shore; then we turn along the Western Shore of Africa, to Cape Verd; and from thence the Shore bends eastward along Guinea, and fouthward by Congo and Angola, to the Cape of Good Hope; where it is again refle-Eted northward, and gives Bounds to Sofala, Zamguebar, and [Anian]; here the Arabian Gulph, or Red Sea, is extended to Egypt, which is joined to the Arabian Shore, and to the Shores of the Persian Gulph: upon the East of these, are the Shores of Persia, Cambaya, Indostan, Malacca in India, Bengal, Cambodia, China, Tartary at Corea, to the Streights of Uries; where follow the unknown Coast of Northern Tartary, and the Samoieds, which is [very likely] joined to the Streights of Waygats, where we

began.

2. AMERICA is thus encompassed by the Ocean. On the North at the Streights of Davis, there is Hudson's Bay, from whence follow in order to the fouthward the Shores of New-Britain, New-England, New-France, Virginia, Florida, Mexico, and New-Spain, on the Isthmus; then New-Castle, Guinea, Brasil, and Patagon, at the Streights of Magellan, where the Shore from running fouthward begins to turn towards the West; thence from South to North are extended the Shores of Chili, Peru, New-Spain and New-Mexico, which is bounded by the Gulph of California; [where follow the unknown Shores of Mozembec, &c. (bounded perhaps by the Streights of Anian) which may be contiguous (for any thing that we know) to those of Davis's Streights.]

3. THE Artic Continent is extended to Davis's Streights, and from thence begin the Shores of Greenland, which run a little to the South, and then return northward to Spitsberg, where they are called the Shores of New-Greenland: these are stretched out over against Nova Zembla, and the North of Tartary; from whence the rest of the Shore to

Davis's Streights is unknown.

4. THE South Continent stretches to the Streights of La Maire, whence the Shore is perhaps continued to New-Holland, where the Lant-chidol Sea is received into a Gulph, on the other

VOL, I.

Side whereof is New Guinea, which [very probably is contiguous to the Shores at the Streights of La Maire.

LET us now trace out the Perimeter of the Ocean. Between Davis's Streights, and Nova Zembla there is the northern Ocean, and Icy Sea, or Sea of Greenland; which is continued till between Europe and America, where it is called the German Ocean, the British Ocean, the French and Spanish Ocean, and, in the whole, the Atlantic Ocean; (and maketh three Bays, viz. the Mediterranean, the Baltic, and the Mexican Gulph) which, when it comes between the Coasts of Africa and Brafil, is called the Ethiopian Sea on the one Hand, and on the other the Sea of Magellan: further to the East, between Africa and the South Continent, is the fouthern Ocean, and between Afia and the same Continent the [eastern or ] Indian Ocean; also between Asia and South America is the Pacific Ocean [or great South Sea] which is extended northward to the Streights of Waygats and Anian, and fouthward to the Streights of Magellan [and La Maire] by which it is joined to the Atlantic. It goes under feveral Names along the Coast of America, as the Sea of Chili, Peru, Mexico, California, &c.

The Terraqueous Globe is divided into Land and Water. Again Water is divided into the main Ocean, Lakes, Moraffes, and Rivers. The main Ocean is formed by the Earth into three forts of Portions.

<sup>1.</sup> The Ocean, whose prime Parts are four.

western Ocean] with the Ethiopic Sea, between Europe and A-frica on the one Hand, and America on the other. It obtains various Names from the Places it watereth, viz.

2. THE Pacific Ocean, or great South Sea, between the furthest Parts of Asia and the Indian Islands, on the one hand; and the western Shore

of America on the other.

3. THE northern Ocean, about the Artic Continent, fometimes called the Icy Sea, Tartarian Ocean, &c.

4. THE fouthern Ocean, about the Antarctic Continent, a Part of which is the Indian Ocean.

2. Bays or Gulphs.

I. The Mediterranean Sea.

Sea between Europe and Africa as far as Asia minor Sea.

The Levant,

Sec.

fecondary Bays are The Gulph of Venice, The Archipelago, The Euxine Sea; &c.

2. The Baltic Sea with it's fecondary Bays, viz. the Bothnic Bay, the Gulph of Finland, the Livonian Sea, &c.

3. The Arabian Gulph, or Red-Sea, between

Africa and Arabia.

4. The Persian Gulph, or Gulph of Balsora, between Arabia and Persia.

5. The Sea of California, between California

and New-Mexico.

6. The Gulph of Nankin, between Corea and China. N 2 These

Thefe feven are broad and open, and want Streights,

1. The Gulph of Mexico, between North and South America.

2. The Gulph of Bengal, between Indostan and Malacca.

3. The Bay [of Siam] between Malacca and Cambodia.

4. The White Sea, between Lapland and Muscovy.

5. The Lantchidol Sea, between New-Holland and New-Guinea.

6. The Gulph between Nuyt's Land, and Van Diemen's Land.

7. Hudson's Bay; between New-France and New-Denmark.

# 3. Streights.

1. THE Streights of Magellan, which join the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. These are longer than any of the rest.

2. THE Streights of La Maire near those of

Magellan, and of the same use.

3. THE supposed Streights of Anian, which

join the Pacific to the Tartarian Ocean.

4. DAVIS's Streights which join [Baffin's Bay] to the Atlantic, near which are Forbifher's Streights.

5. THE Streights of Waygats, which join the Icy Sea, perhaps, to the Tartarian Ocean, if the

Ice do not interpose.

6. THE Streights of Gibraltar, which join the Atlantic to the Mediterranean Sea.

7. THE Streights of Denmark, or the Sound, join the Atlantic to the Baltic.

8. THE Streights of Babelmandel, at the mouth

of the Arabian Gulph.

9. THE Streights of Ormus, at the mouth of the Persian Gulph.

10. THE

10. THE Hellespont and Bosphorus, which join

the Archipelago to the Euxine or Black Sea.

WIHETHER the Caspian Sea be a Lake or a broad Bay, which is joined to the main Ocean by fome fubterraneous Streights, is not fettled among Geographers.



#### CHAP. XIII.

Of the Ocean, and certain Properties of it's Parts.

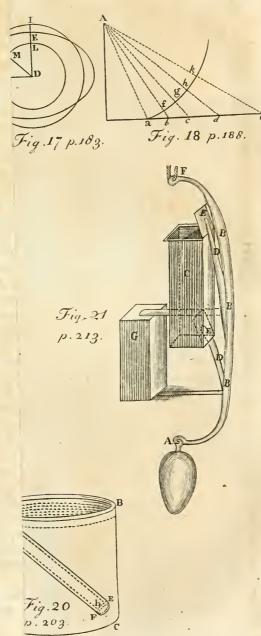
#### PROPOSITION I.

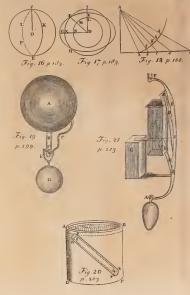
The Surface of the Ocean, and of all other Liquids, is round and spherical: Or the Surface of the watery Part joined to the Surface of the dry Part, do both together make up the Superficies of the terraqueous Globe.

THE Truth of this Theorem is proved from the Arguments used in Chapter iii, to prove the spherical Figure of the Earth, for they hold as well here as there; but because those Proofs are chiefly built upon the Phænomena that are reafonably supposed to proceed from such a Figure, that is, rather from the Effects than the Cause; we shall propose, in this Place, a Demonstration which is wholly founded upon natural Causes, and by which Archimedes proved the Superficies of all liquid Bodies to be spherical: in order to which he N 2 took

took for granted the three following Postulata: 1. That the Earth hath a Center, and is therefore fpherical. 2. That it is the Nature of all Liquids, whose Parts are continued and lie at equal Distances from the Center, that the Parts less pressed are expelled from their Places by those that are more pressed, as is manifest from Experience. 3. That every Part of the Liquid is pressed by that Part which is above it, perpendicularly towards the Center of the Earth, if the whole be defcending, or is pressed by any other Body. Besides these Postulata, Archimedes uses a Geometrical Proposition which is not found demonstrated any where in the Elements; and therefore he demonstrates it himself, which is this: If a Superficies be cut by feveral Planes, all paffing thro' one Point, and each Section be the Periphery of a Circle, whose Center is that one Point, then will the Superficies be spherical, and that Point the Center of the Sphere; as is easily demonstrated.

LET the Superficies of any Body be cut by the Plane IFKEP (Fig. 16.) thro' D, and let the Perimeter of the Section I F K E P be circular, having D for it's Center; also let every other Section, made thro' D, have circular Perimeters, and D for their Center. It is to be shewn, that the Superficies of this Body is spherical, and that D is it's Center; i. e. that all the Points in the Superficies are equidiftant from D. For we may imagine several right Lines to be drawn from D to other Points of the Superficies, and we must prove them to be all equal. We may suppose a Plane to pass thro' any of them drawn from D to the Superficies, and also thro' DF (for two right Lines cutting one another, or meeting, are in the same Plane by Euclid Lib. ii. Prop. 2.) and the Periphery of the Section will be circular by the Hypothesis; therefore, the supposed Line





drawn will be equal to DF, and fo will all other Lines drawn from D to the Superficies be in like manner equal to DF (a). Hence we prove the Superficies to be spherical, having D for it's Center (b). This being premited, the Superficies of all Liquids are thus demonstrated to be spherical. Let us suppose a Liquid at Rest, in the form of EFGH, (Fig. 17.) and let the Earth's Center be D, and imagine this Liquid to be cut by a Plane passing thro' D, so as the Section may be reprefented in the Superficies by EFGH. We are first to prove that this Line EFGH is circular, or an Arch of the Periphery of a Circle, whose Center is D. If it were possible not to be cr-cular, then would two Lines, drawn from D to it, be unequal. Let the unequal Lines DE, DG be drawn, viz. let DG be greater than DE, also let the one be the least, and the other the greatest that can be drawn from D. Then draw another right Line DF to EFGH, bifecting the Angle GDE, fo as to be longer than DE, but shorter than DG. With this DF as a Radius upon the Center D, describe in the same Plane the Arch IFKH, which will cut the Line DE produced in the Point I, and the Line DG on this Side G, in the Point K.

LIKEWISE with the Radius DL, fomething less than DE, upon the Center D, describe the Arch L M N within the Liquid in the fame Plane IFKH. Then are the Parts of the Liquid within the Arch LM N continued, and at equal distances from the Center D: but the Parts between MN are more pressed than those between LM, having above them a greater Quantity, and therefore a greater Weight of Water.

(a) By the Definition of a | (b) By the Definition of a Circle Chap. ii. Article 3. Globe Chap. ii. Article 12.

AND the Parts of the Liquid within LM, being less pressed, are driven out of their Places by those within MN which take them up, and put the Liquid in Motion. But it was before supposed to lie in this Form at Rest, and still: So that the Liquid, by this, will be both at Rest and in Motion, which is inconfistent. Wherefore the right Lines, drawn from D to EFGH, are not unequal, but equal; and fo the Line EFGH is an Arch of a Circle, whose Center is D. The same may be demonstrated in all Planes cutting the Superficies of the Liquid, and paffing thro' D, viz. that the Section is an Arch of a Circle whose Center is D. Therefore fince, in the Superficies of Liquids, all Planes passing any how thro' D, are found to produce circular Sections, it will follow, from the foregoing Proposition, that the Superficies of all Liquids is spherical; having the Point D, that is, the Center of the Earth, for their Center; as will more manifestly appear from the Proof of the following Proposition.

### PROPOSITION II.

The Sea is not higher than the Land, and therefore the Earth and Water are almost every where of the same Altitude, bigh Mountains excepted.

THE Truth of this is demonstrated by the preceding Proposition. For if the Superficies of the Ocean be spherical, and have the same Center with the Superficies of the Earth, and also if the Sea, near the Shore, be no higher than the Land, neither will the middle of the Ocean be elevated above the Earth, because both their Surfaces make up the Superficies of one and the fame Sphere. But some perhaps will not believe the former Proposition, by Reason of the assumed Hypothesis; therefore

therefore we shall shew the Truth of this Theorem,

without that, from it's known Effects.

1. WE know, by Experience, that Water, if it is not hindred, will flow from a higher to a lower Place. If therefore there were about the Shore any Place lower than the middle of the Ocean, the Water would continually fettle from thence towards the Shore, and be always flowing, and in Motion; but the contrary is observed when the Weather is calm.

- 2. IF the Ocean, far remote from the Shore, was much higher than the Sea Coast, it might be seen at a greater Distance than if it were spherical, even over all the intervening Parts that were of a less Altitude. But Experience sheweth to the contrary, that when we come from the Inland Parts nearer the Shore, we discover by little and little the more remote Parts of the Sea, and the nearer we approach the Shore, the surther we can see upon the Ocean. Therefore the remote Parts of the Ocean are not elevated above the Sea Coast, but are of the same Altitude with them and the Earth.
- 3. SAIL ORS cannot discover any Difference between their Altitude, at the Sea Coast, and in the middle of the main Ocean, tho' they use the most accurate Instruments, which certainly they might, if the remote Parts were elevated above the rest, as a Tower, or a Mountain. For as we can find the Altitude of a Mountain, or Tower, above the Places of Observation by Instruments, so might they (if there were any) find the superior Altitude of the middle of the Ocean above the Parts next it, by such accurate Instruments as are now in Use.
- 4. THERE are found, in feveral Places, great Numbers of Islands, which are, fome of them, extended far into the main Ocean, and others

others almost contiguous to the Continent. Therefore no Part of the main Ocean is higher than the Land; because it is not higher than the Shores of these Islands.

5. THE Waves upon the Ocean never keep long upon a Heap, but are naturally diffused 'till they make a smooth Surface: wherefore it is unreasonable to suppose, that the Water should be

heaped up towards the middle of the Ocean.

6. IF the Waters in the main Ocean are higher than the rest, why do they not flow into the Chanels of the Rivers, whose Waters are more depressed? for we find, by Experience, that Water naturally flows from the Place where it is, to any other that is lower, which is the Cause of so many Inundations.

FROM the whole I think it fufficiently appears, that the Sea is not higher than the Shores; and but very few Shores are elevated to the Height of the Inland Parts, for these are often observed to rife gradually above the other, 'till they become high Mountains: from whence we conclude that no Part of the Ocean is higher than the Superficies of the Earth. That the Inland Parts are more elevated than the Sea Shores, appears also from the Rife and Currents of Rivers, which, for the most part, break out, and are directed, from these Mediterranean Places, towards the Ocean. These Places therefore are higher than the maritime Parts, because they pour down their Waters upon them. Not but that there are some Countries which are fituated a little lower than the Surface of the Ocean, but then they are defended either by the Altitude of the Shores, or by Banks, or long Ridges, of interposed Ground. Some Countries also are not fenced with Banks, because they fear a calm and fettled Sea should overflow them, but left, when it is ruffled with Winds and made impetuous,

CHAP. 13. of Univerfal Geography. 187 impetuous, it should violently break in upon them.

#### COROLLARY.

IT is therefore in vain to tell us, that the Sea is higher than the Land, and that by a miraculous Providence it is kept from overflowing the whole Earth, and caufing another Universal Deluge; for we have shewed, that both Land and Water are included within our fpherical Superficies, and that most Parts of the Earth, at least the Shores are higher than the middle of the Ocean, which for that Reafon cannot overflow Countries, or cause a Deluge, unless the Shore or Banks are wasted, and their Height diminished, or a greater Quantity of Water force them open, or overpower them, and then indeed there may happen an Inundation. Neither is it impossible, or contrary to Nature, that the whole Earth by fuch Means might be overflowed, as will be made evidently appear at the End of this Chapter.

## PROPOSITION III.

Why the Ocean, seen from the Shore, appears to rise and swell to a greater Altitude, by how much the more remote it is.

THIS is a Deception of Sight, or to speak more accurately, in the Estimation, which hath brought many into an Error, and by which divers have supposed the Sea to be in some Places several Furlongs higher than the Land. But it is a wonder they have never taken notice of a common Experiment, which is to be met with every Day, whereby this Fallacy is easily detected. If we look upon a long Pavement, or Area, or upon a row of Pillars,

Pillars, the Parts that are remote, will appear higher than those that are near, and the whole Pavement, or Area, will feem to be elevated by little and little, as it's Parts are more remote from us, notwithstanding, in Truth, it be every where of the same Altitude. After the same manner we estimate the Height of the Sea; for if we take a levelling Instrument, and observe from the Shore the remote Parts of the Sea, we shall find it not to be elevated above us, but rather depressed below the Horizon where we stand.

THE Cause of this Deception is thus explained from Optics. Let the Eye at A observe a Pavement, or the Superficies of the Water, a pretty way extended a e (Fig. 18.). Let the Angle a A e b devided into four equal Parts, or Angles e Ad, dAc, cAb, bAa, by the right Lines Ab, Ac, Ad. These will divide the right Line ae into four unequal Parts, ab, bc, cd, de, of which the more remote will be the largest, as appears by the Figure, viz. Ed larger than dc, and dc larger than bc, and be than a b. Altho' these Parts are very unequal, yet, by a Deception of the Sight, they will be judged to be all equal, and at an equal Distance from the Eye; fo that A b, A c, A d, A e, will feem to be Af, Ag, Ab, Ak, where af, fg, gh, bk, are equal; and thus the Parts bc, cd, de, feem elevated, as if they were fg, gh, bk.

OR shorter thus. Because the Eye is raised to fee things at a Distance, and depressed to view things near, therefore things at a Distance seem elevated, and things near depressed. Or because we measure the Distance of the Parts that are near by the Elevation of our Eye, and therefore they feem low; but we cannot do so by the Parts at a Distance, and therefore they feem not low, but raised

more than they really are.

HENCE

HENCE we gather, that tho' the Ocean may feem to be raifed above the Shore, and the more the further off, yet we are not to think that it is

really fo.

SOME imagine the Ocean to be higher than the Earth, because unless it was so, they think it impossible that Water should flow from it to the Heads of Rivers (which are commonly placed very high in inland Countries) since it never flows, but from a higher to a lower Place. But we shall discuss this Point, when we treat of the Origin of

Springs.

OTHERS may infer, that the Pike of Teneriff is not so high as to be seen on the Ocean at so great a Distance as fixty German Miles, or sour Degrees, unless either the Foot of the Mountain, or the Ocean itself, be higher than the Sea upon the Coast of Teneriff; the like may be said of other Mountains. What is to be answered here appears from Chapter ix, where we treated of the Altitude of Mountains.

## PROPOSITION IV.

To explain the Cause and Origin of Bays and Streights,

BAYS, properly speaking, are in the Earth and not in the Sea, and therefore they ought to be called the Arms, Branches, or procurrent Parts, of the Ocean. For those are more properly called Bays of the Ocean, where it receives Peninsula's, such as Malacca, Julland, &c.

BUT custom hath obtained that the word Bay,

BUT custom hath obtained that the word Bay, should, contrary to it's Signification, belong to the Ocean, and be the same as an Arm or Branch

of it.

THESE Bays or Gulphs are thus produced. When a part of the Sea Shore is by some external

Cause

Cause shattered and rent in two, so as to leave an Opening, whose Surface is lower than the Surface of the Ocean, the Water naturally gusheth in between the Cliffs, and is not stopped till it meet with more elevated Ground, by which it is bounded, and formed into a Bay.

STREIGHTS are from this Cause also pro-

duced.

THE reason why these Parts are now and then fo miserably torn in Pieces, as to admit Inundations (by which Bays and Streights are formed) is the impetuous Motion and violent dashing of the Waves against the Shore, being forced by Winds, or fome other Caufe, almost daily, to wash away and waste them: whereby, in process of time, the Earth is broken and disjoined, and made unfit to refift the rushing of the Ocean. But this is more likely to happen if the Shore be low, and confift of loofe and crumbling Earth, easy for the Sea to work upon, which will with fmall refiftance burft, and make room for a whole Bay of Water.

I T is manifest, that some new Bays and Streights are thus produced, but we must not thence conclude, that all which are at this Day found in the Earth were fo generated: for it is very likely, that a great many of them are of the same Date with the Earth and Ocean; and the rather, because none, nor any thing like them, have been produced in the memory of Man. Tho' the ancient Grecians have fuch Fables; and tell us, that the Mountain Calpe upon the Spanish Shore, and Abyle in Africa were formerly joined, but afterwards feparated by Hercules; from whence these Mountains were called Hercules's Pillars, and the Streights,

Hercules's Streights (a).

IT

<sup>(</sup>a) There are a great many veral other Reasons, to induce Testimonies of Authors, and se- us to believe, that Britain was not

IT was a common Opinion of the Ancients, that the Streights between Italy and Sicily, were made by the Irruption of the Sea, which we do not so much doubt of: nor do we think it impossible, that the like small Streights have been and are still generated. Streights also may be turned into Bays, and Bays into Streights; as if, for Example, the Mouth of the Streights of Magellan or Manilba, should be stopped on the one side or the other, they would be changed into long Bays: or if (on the other hand) the Istomus between Africa and Asia, should be removed, then the Red-Sea would be joined to the Mediterranean, and they both become Streights, and afford a Passage to the Indian Ocean.

## PROPOSITION V.

Whether the Ocean be every where of the same Altitude.

IT appears from the first Proposition, that the Face of the Ocean in it's natural Situation, and when no Obstacle hinders, is every where of the same Altitude, having, as was there proved a spherical Surface, and being concentrical with the Earth: but it may be here doubted, whether for some Reasons, it may not in one Place be higher than in another; which is very worthy of Observation, and of great Moment to be well understood, by

not an Island from the Beginning, but was formerly joined to France by an Islamus, between Dover and Calais, and that this Islamus, in process of Time, being continually beat upon by two impetuous Tides

every Day on both Sides, was wore away and wasted. The great Dr Wallis was of this Opinion, and so was Dr Musgrave. See both their Arguments in Philos. Trans. abridged by Motte. Part 4. Page 35, 40.

those that propose the cutting thro' of Ishmus's, and joining one Part of the Ocean to another.

SEVERAL will have both the Sea and Land to be higher towards the Northern Parts, than about the Equator, and this was Aristotle's Thought (in Lib. 2. Chap. ii. de Calo) (c). The Reason they bring for it is, that the Ocean feems to flow from the Northern Parts as from a Fountain; but this does not prove it's superior Altitude there: for whether the Northern Countries, or rather the Northern Chanels, be higher or lower than the Chanels near the Equator (as is yet doubtful, or at least not fufficiently proved from that Motion which is not generally found in all the Northern Parts) it does not follow, if they were fo admitted, that the Ocean is there higher; because that to lower that fuperior Height, and to make the other equal with it, the Ocean is constantly flowing towards the Equator. Aristotle in the forecited Place adds another fabulous Reason, taken from the Poets, which is not worth an Answer, viz. that the Sun when it fets, hides itself beyond the great Bulk of the Northern Regions.

THIS Opinion of the superior Altitude of the North Pole, feems to arise from hence; that when we turn our Faces that way, we imagine the Pole to be raifed above the Horizon of the Place we are in, and therefore judge the Countries thereabouts

to be elevated above us.

SOME think the Indian Ocean to be higher than the Atlantic, which they endeavour to prove from the Flux of the Sea in at the Streights of Gibraltar, and of the Arabian Gulph: but then, this doubt is to be confidered, whether the Altitude of Bays, especially in their extream Parts, be the same

<sup>(</sup>c) The Earth and Ocean are highest about the Equator. See the Note (b) on Chap, iii,

193

with that of the Ocean, or less; and chiefly those Bays which are joined by very narrow Streights to the Ocean.

THAT the Atlantic and Indian Ocean are higher than the extream Parts of the Mediterranean. near Egypt and Afia minor, none need doubt; for unless the Streights of Gibraltar (where the Atlantic floweth into the Mediterranean) were fomething lower than the Ocean, there would not be fuch a strong Current there as it is. Perhaps at the Streight's mouth there may be but little difference; but then further, to continue the Flux all over that large Tract between Europe and Africa, the depresfion of the Bay must by Degrees be greater, otherwife the Water could not flow when it is so often obstructed by Rocks, Islands, Peninsula's, and other Obstacles, which repel the Current of the Water, and diminish the Force of the Influx. We need not doubt of this, if it be true what is recorded of Sesostris, Darius, and other Kings of Egypt, by some Authors of good Credit, how they attempted to cut a Chanel between the Red-Sea and the Nile, that out of the Indian Ocean, and thro' the Red-Sea, they might fail that Way from the Mouth of the Nile into the Mediterranean; which would be of great Advantage to Egypt and other Countries upon the Coast of the Mediterranean. But they were forced to defift from this Enterprise, when the Red-Sea was discovered by the Artificers to be much higher than the Inner Egypt. If therefore the Red-Sea be higher than the Land of Egypt, it will be also higher than the Water of the Nile and the Mediterranean itself, into which the Nile flows; and confequently the Red-Sea, and also the Indian Ocean, are both higher than the Mediterranean, especially the furthest Parts of it about Egypt, Romania, and the Archipelago. VOL. I. MORE-

MOREOVER, other Kings of Egypt of old, and of late the Egyptian Sultans, and Turkish Emperors, had frequent Confultations about cutting through that Isthmus that joins Africa to Asia, and separates the Mediterranean from the Red-Sea; but the Reason, as we are told, why they did not set about it was, that the Indian and Red-Sea were found to be much higher than the Shores of the Mediterranean: and therefore it was feared, that the Red-Sea thould overflow them, especially Egypt, which is reckoned by every one to be a very low Countrv.

THAT the Red Sea is higher than the Mediterranean appeareth from thele Observations; but this, not without Caufe, may be doubted by fome, because they are both Bays, the one of the Atlantic and the other of the Indian Ocean. Therefore to give a plaufible Reafon, why the one should be higher than the other, it will not be amiss to confider, that tho' they are both depressed more than the Seas from which they flow; yet the Difference is less fensible in the extream Part of the Red-Sea. which is nearer the Indian Ocean, than the extream Parts of the Mediterranean are to the Atlantic. For I cannot think that the *Indian* Ocean is higher than

IF therefore the Ishmus was cut through, no doubt but a great Quantity of Water would flow from the Red-Sea into the Mediterranean; but I cannot think fo much as to bring Egypt, and other Places about the Levant, into danger of being overflowed: because if the Indian Ocean poured in more Water, the Atlantic, would very likely emit less, that fo they might each retain the fame Altitude in Proportion.

the Atlantic, as some imagine.

BESIDES this, I suppose the Sultans of Egypt and the Turks, were induced by other Political

Caufes

195

Caufes and Reafons to omit cutting through this Ifthmus.

THE first scruple was no doubt the greatness of the Work, for it would be no finall Labour and Expence to cut thro' an Ishmus, whose Breadth at the narrowest Part is at least forty German Miles, and the Earth rocky; befides there must have been Dams and Wears made in feveral Places, which could not have been done without skillful Workmen, which those Nations have always wanted.

THE fecond Reason was, because they supposed the Christian Nations in Italy, Venice, France, Spain, &c. would receive greater Benefit than they themselves from this Canal, by failing thro' it to Perfia and India, and bringing thence those precious Commodities, which the Turks and Egyptians at present carry at their own Prices by Land, and for which they receive large Duties, which bring confiderable Revenues into the Grand Seignior's Coffers. See Maffeus's History of India, Book iii, where he tells us, how much the Sultans of Egypt were formerly offended at the Portuguese sailing and trading into India.

A third Cause why they neglected this was perhaps, because they knew the Christians excelled them in Navigation; and were therefore afraid lest they should invade those Streights, and the adjacent Countries, or even Medina itself, the Sepulchre of Mahomet. For a confiderable Fleet would in a short time transport a great Army of Men, and all necessary Provisions from Europe to Arabia, by this

Canal.

BUT Alphonsus Albuquerce, Governor of the Portuguese Indies, was of another Opinion, when he had intended to have turned the Nile from Egypt, by cutting a Chanel thro' Abyssinia (which borders upon Egypt, only a few Defarts interpo-fing) to the Red-Sea, that by this means he might  $O_2$ 

3

render Egypt barren and unfruitful to the Turks;

but he died before he could undertake it.

THUS far, concerning the Altitude of the Mediterranean compared with that of the Red-Sea, Atlantic, and Indian Ocean. We were obliged to explain it; because from thence some take Occasion to argue the unequal Altitude of some Parts of the Ocean.

BUT these things may be comfirmed by another Example, if we may compare great Things with finall. The German Ocean, which is a Part of the Atlantic, running between Friefland and Holland, forms a Bay; which tho' it be but small, in comparison of these famous ones just now mentioned, yet it is called a Sea, and watereth Amsterdam the Capital of Holland. Not far from thence is the Lake of Harlem, which is also called the Sea of Harlem: this is as high as the forementioned Bay, and fends out a Branch to Leyden; where it is divided into feveral leffer Canals. And because neither the Lake nor the Bay overflows the bordering Country (when they are fettled and at quiet, and they have Bulwarks provided against a Storm) it appears that they are not higher than the Lands of Holland. But that the German Ocean is higher than these Countries, hath been experienced by the Inhabitants of Leyden, when they undertook to cut a Canal from their City to the German Shore, near the Town of Catwic, which is about two Holland Miles in Length; fo that the Sea being let in, they might fail into the German Ocean, and from thence to other Countries. But when they had finished a great Part of it, they were forced to leave off, having at length found, by Obfervation, that the German Ocean was higher than the Ground between it and Leyden; from whence the Place where they left off is called by the Dutch, Het malle Gat. i. e. unprosperous. Therefore the

German

German Ocean is fomething higher than [the Zuy-der Zee or] the Bay of Holland.

BUT all Bays are not depressed below the Ocean, for those that run out into the Land at broad and open Paffages, fuch as those of Mexico, Bengal, &c. are, without doubt, of the same Altitude with the Ocean itself: tho' I know the Spamiards doubted this (whether the Pacific Ocean was higher than the Bay of Mexico) when they confulted about cutting thro' the Isthmus of Panama, that they might with more Expedition fail to Peru, China, and the Indian Islands. But besides this Sufpense, we understand that they had a Political Reason for not doing it; they were afraid lest the English, Dutch, and other Nations should make use of it, and lie in wait at the Entrances, or invade Peru. For the English and Dutch would not care to make fuch long and dangerous Voyages thro' the Streights of Magellan or La Maire, when, with a well furnished Fleet, they could force their way thro' those Streights, and perhaps take Peru, or at least crush the Force of the Spaniards there.

THAT we may put an end to this, it is best to determine, that the divers parts of the Ocean and broad Bays are all of the same Altitude, (as was proved in the first Proposition) but long Bays, and chiefly those produced from narrow Streights, are somewhat depressed, especially at their extream Parts: but I could wish there were more diligent and accurate Observations made by those who have the Opportunities of making them, to remove, if possible, the following Doubts, viz. 1. Whether the Indian, Atlantic, and Pacific Ocean are of the fame Altitude, or the Atlantic be lower than the other two. 2. Whether the northern Ocean, near the Pole, and within the Frigid Zone, be higher than the Atlantic. 3. Whether the Red-Sea be higher than the Mediterranean. 4. Whether the Pacific 0 3

Pacific Sea be higher than the Mexican Bay. 5. Whether the Baltic be as high as the Atlantic. And these Differences ought to be observed in Hudson's Bay, the Streights of Magellan, and others. shall treat of the Euxine Sea in Chapter xv.

THE continual Flux and Reflux of the Sea, and Currents, make the Face of the Ocean mutable, and it's Parts of a different Altitude, at different Times; but these arise from external Causes, and we here only confider the natural Conftitution of the Water: befides, they do not feem to alter the Altitude fo much in the middle of the Ocean, as near the Shores.

#### COROLLARY.

THEREFORE we cannot affent to Papyrius Fabianus and Cleomedes, who determined the greatest Height of the Ocean to be fifteen Furlongs, or half a German Mile; unless they mean the Depth, which is not at all well expressed by the Word Altitude, as it appears in the Translation of Aristotle, Book i. Meteor. Chap. xi. at the end, where βάθεα τε πόντε is explained of the Altitude of the Sea.

## PROPOSITION VI.

The Depth of the Sea, or Ocean, in most Parts may be tried with a founding Lead; and there are but few Places where the Bottom cannot be reached.

THE Depth of the Ocean varies according to the greater or lesser Depression of the Chanels; being found so of a German Mile, 20, 10, 1, 1, &c. deep; and in a few Places a whole German Mile or more, where the Line was commonly not long enough to try how much, tho' even there it is likely the Botrom is not at a vast Distance,

unless

unless perhaps in some Places there may be deeper Pits than ordinary, or subterraneous Passages.

THE Depth of Bays is not so great as that of the Ocean, and their Chanels are lets hollowed by being nearer the Land: for the same Reason the Ocean is not so deep near the Shore, as in remote Places; which happens by reason of the concave

Shape of the Chanel.

SAILORS find the Sea's Depth with a founding Lead, in the Shape of a Pyramid, of about twelve Pound Weight, fastened to a Line about two hundred Perches long, tho' some require a Lead of a greater Weight: yet they may be sometimes deceived in this Observation if the Line should be carried away by a Current or Whirlpool, so as not to descend perpendicularly, but obliquely.

BUT when the Depth is so great that no Line is sufficient to sound it, some have thought of a Method to try it thus (d). In the first Place they observe, how long a known Weight of Lead will be in descending a known Depth; then they sasten

O 4 a Cork

(d) The learned Dr Hook has given us a Method (much like the following) to found the Depth of the Sea without a Line, which, because it promiseth Success, we shall here describe from the Philos. Trans. No 9. Page 147.

N° 9. Page 147.

Take a Globe of Fir, or Maple, or other light Wood, as A; (Fig. 19.) let it be well fecured by Varnish, Pitch, orotherwise, from imbibing Water; then take a Piece of Lead, or Stone, D, considerably heavier than will fink the Globe: let there be a long wire Staple B in the Ball A, and a springing

Wire C, with a bended End F, and into the faid Staple, prefs in, with your Fingers, the fpringing Wire on the bended End: and on it hang the Weight D, by it's Hook E, and fo let the Globe and all fink gently into the Water, in the Posture reprefented in the Figure, to the Bottom, where the Weight, D, touching first, is thereby stopped; but the Ball, being by the Impetus it acquired in defcending carried downwards a little after the Weight is stopped, fuffers the springing Wire to fly back, and thereby fets itself at Liberty to re-ascend. a Cork or a blown Bladder to the Lead, so as it may be disengaged from it, as soon as the Lead shall touch the Bottom: this being done, they let down the Lead, and observe the time between it's touching the Bottom, and the Cork's rising to the Surface of the Sea; from whence by comparing this with the aforesaid Observations, and stated Pro-

And by observing the Time of the Ball's slay under Water, (which may be done by a Watch, or a good Minute Glass, or best of all by a Pendulum vibrating Seconds, (which must be three Foot three Inches and one fifth of an Inch long) you may by the help of some Tables, come to know any Depth of the Sea. Which Tables may be calculated from the following Experiments made by the Lord Vife. Brounker, Sir Robert Murray, and Mr. Hook, in the Chanel at Sheerness; mentioned in Philos. Trans. No 24. Page 439.

A wooden Ball A weighed — — — 52½ 000

Another wooden Ball B — — — 30 20

A Lead A — — — — — 30 000

Another Lead B — — — — 30½ 000

The Ball B and the Lead B were let down at fixteen Fathoms; and the Ball returned in forty eight fingle Strokes of a Pendulum, held in the Hand, vibrating fifty eight fingle Strokes in a Minute.

A fecond time repeated with the fame Success; wherefore the Motion was four Foot every Second.

Again the Ball A, and the Lead B, whose Nail was bended into a shaper Angle; the Ball returned in thirty nine Strokes. A second time repeated with the same Success, at the same Depth.

Ball A, Lead A, at eight Fathoms and one Foot, returned at twenty; repeated at eight Fathoms, returned at nineteen. Tried the third time at ten Fathoms four Foot, returned at twenty eight.

A fourth Tryal at the same Depth, just the same.

A fifth, at ten Fathoms five Foot, returned at twenty feven. A fixth Tryal, just the same.

A seventh at twelve Fathoms five Foot, returned in thirty-feven.

An eighth Tryal just the same. But if it be alledged, that it must be known, when a light Body ascends from the Bottom of the Water to the Top, in what Proportion of Time it rises; it may be considered, that in these Experiments the Times of the Descent and Ascent are both taken and computed together; so that for this Purpose, there needs not the Nicety which is alledged.

portions,

20 I

portions, they find the Depth of the Ocean. But there is such a Nicety required in making these Tryals, and the time of Observation is so short, that it is very rare to find the true Depth by this Method. However it appeareth, that the Depth of the Ocean is every where finite, and not extended to the Antipodes; because if two Portions of Earth were divided by any Part of the Ocean, which might be continued thro' the Center to the opposite Side of the Globe, unless they were supported with Arches, they would immediately fall together at the Center, because the Earth is heavier than the Water. Besides, the whole Bulk of Earth and Water is finite and spherical; and therefore the Depth of the Ocean cannot be infinite.

MOREOVER, from the Observations of the Depth in divers Places, it is manifest, that the Chanels in Depth are nearly equal to the Mountains and inland Parts in Elevation, that is, as much as the one is raised, so much the other is depressed, and as the Altitude of the inland Parts is gradually increased from the Shore, so is the Sea deeper and deeper towards the Middle of the Ocean, where

the Depth is for the most part greatest.

THE Depth of the Sea, is in the same Place often altered by these or the like Causes. 1. By the Flux and Reslux. 2. By the Increase and Decrease of the Moon. 3. By the Winds. 4. By the mouldering and subsiding of the Shores; whence the Chanel is made higher in process of time by Sand

and Mud.

# PROPOSITION VII.

The Ocean doth not flow from Springs, but is contained within the Cavities of the Earth; tho' it is not always numerically the same, but continually increasing and diminishing.

WE

WE know by Experience that the Water of Rivers is produced by Springs, and because it hath been so for many Ages past, it necessarily follows, that the Water which is continually flowing to the Sea, returns again to the Fountains, either by fubterraneous Ducts, or fome other way. The Philosophers of old were also of Opinion, that the Sea iffued forth at feveral Springs; neither could the Magnitude nor the Perpetuity of it's Bulk convince them of their Error, for they faid, that it was conveyed by fubterraneous Fissures to these Fountains, which therefore kept continually flowing. Aristotle (Book ii. Meteor. Chap. ii.) endeavours to prove the contrary, and to refute the Arguments of the Ancients, but fays very little to the Purpose; we think these following will be more effectual to disprove them. If the Ocean have Springs they must either be in the raised Parts of the Earth, or in that Part which is covered with the Ocean, that is in the very Chanel of the Sea. That there are no fuch upon the dry Land is apparent, because there were never yet found any; and to fay that they are in the unknown Countries towards the North or South Pole is to take a Thing for granted without any manner of Reason for it, because most of these Countries are covered with Ice continually, and as many as are discovered of them afford no Springs at all. Neither can they pretend to fay that they are in the Chanel of the Sea; for if they were, they would be no further distant from the Center than the Ocean itself; and therefore the Water in them would not flow, but be at Rest, because it is against Nature that it should ascend from a lower to a higher Place; and the Springs of all Rivers are higher than the Waters they emit. Some indeed may object that this Motion is violent, because that the Bottom of the Ocean, being perforated into Ducts, Meanders, Fissures, or Canals.

nals, (which you'll please to call them) is not terminated in the Earth's Bowels, but extended to another Part of the Bottom of the Ocean by more Intercourses than one; some of which convey the Water one way, and some another, so that it issueth out of each, as if they were so many Springs. And fince (fay they) it is not contrary to Reason to suppose many of these Passages or Intercourses, nothing hinders but that there may be also as many Springs in the very Chanel of the Ocean. But these are all vain Fancies, and no way agreeing with the Nature of Water; for tho' the Water be continued thro' these Orifices, it will not flow thro' one or the other, but be at Rest, unless it be urged by fome external Cause; and tho' it be pressed by the incumbent Water on this fide the Intercourse, it will not discharge itself at the other; because it is as much pressed by the incumbent Water there, which keeps it in Æquilibrio, and at Rest, as may be proved by Experiment thus:

Let ABCD (Fig. 20.) be a Veffel full of Water, and ABit's spherical Superficies. Let RPEF be a hollow Beam of Wood, lying obliquely under Water, so that the whole at g under A may be higher than the Hole at b under B. Then the Water will flow in at both ends of the Beam 'till the hollow Part be full; but there will be no Flux at either Orifice; not at g because it is higher nor at b, because, tho' it be lower than g, yet the greater Weight of the Water about B will stop the

Flux (e).

(e) For, by the Laws of Hydrostatics, the Weight of the greater Column of Water under B is of the same force to press the Water upwards at the Hole b, as the lesser Column

of Water under A, and it's own relative Gravity in the declining Bore is to press it downwards at the Hole g; therefore it remains in Æquilibrio, and at Rest.

IF it should be again objected, that the incumbent Water upon the one Orifice is of a less Altitude, and therefore not of fo great Force to repel the Flux of Water, which is immitted at the other: We answer, 1. That such a thing may be, if the Superficies of the Water, which preffeth one Orifice, be reparated, or not continuous to the Superficies of the Water that presseth the other Orifice; but if these two Surfaces are continuous, the Water will fooner descend by that Continuation to the lower Place, than by this fubterraneous Duct. 2. If what was objected be allowed, this Motion would in a thort time cease, viz. when so much Water was run out by the Intercourse from the higher to the lower Place, as to make both their Surfaces of an equal Altitude. And further, suppose one part of the Ocean was perpetually higher than the other, there could be no Reason given, why the Water should circulate, or interchangeably be poured from one Part into another.

FROM whence it is evident, that the Ocean hath no Springs, but is a vast Collection of Waters

contained in Chanels.

YET there are some things to be taken notice of, which are commonly objected against this, viz.

I. THAT our Proof is built upon a Supposition, that the Ocean, as to it's natural Constitution, is continually at Rest, without taking notice of it's being moved by any external Caufes: but there is no time in which the Ocean is not in Motion, either by the Wind or Tide, or some other violent Agent, which causes the Altitude and Quantity of the Water to be greater fometimes in one Place and fometimes in another; and then the Water which is more elevated, is poured into those subterraneous Intercourses, and rushes towards the Parts that are of a less Altitude, and where the incumbent Water is

less able to resist the Eruption. To which I anfwer, that tho' this is possible, yet it cannot be proved either by Reason or Experience, so neither can the contrary, therefore this Problem is a Dilemma, or doubtful. That there are indeed subterraneous Receptacles and Cavities in some Parts of the Bottom of the Sea we cannot deny, because in some Parts it is of an immense Depth, where the neighbouring Places are but shallow; but if this were admitted, it will not follow, that the Water runs thro' these Passages, or that they extend from one Chanel of the Ocean to another: or even if they were, fince they are not in all Places, and fince these external Causes operate sometimes in one, and fometimes in another Part of the Ocean, it will not be granted, that there are perpetual Springs of the Ocean in any one Place, but that the Water flows sometimes from one Part of the Chanel, and fometimes from another, according to the Place and Continuance of the external Cause.

2. SOME may thus argue, that there is a continual Current of the Sea from North to South, between both Sides of America and the Old World; but that we cannot perceive a Current in any Place whereby the Water is conveyed towards the Northern Regions: therefore fince the Flux is perpetual, and hath no apparent Source there, nor Conveyance thither, it is probable, that the Water flows to the North thro' subterraneous Passages, and issueth out at the Holes in the Bottom of the Chanel, as out of a Spring; from whence it returns again to the fouthward. There is another Cause taken from the former, viz. That the Sez-Water in the Torrid Zone is much heavier than in the Northern Regions, as we shall prove in Proposition 8, and 12; and therefore there is a greater Pressure and Force to push forward the Water thro' the Passages there, than there is to refift it at the Northern End of the Intercourfes.

Intercourses, where, for want of an equal Pressure, it breaks out at the Holes in the Bottom of the Chanels. To this we answer, that the Flux of the Ocean from the North is not fo great as is supposed, and as the Ancients imagined; (who would have the Water to flow from the Pole thro' four Chanels, as is reprefented in fome old Geographical Maps;) nor are the Currents constant, but only frequently observed, by reason of the frequent North-Winds, and the great quantities of Snow and Rain which very often raife the Waters, and cause them to flow towards the South. And further, in other Parts another Motion of the Sea is observed, of which see the following Chapter.

3. IT is no Notion, but a real Truth, that all the Springs of Rivers, which flow into the Sea, are Springs of the Ocean: For fince there is in Procefs of a Time a vast quantity of Water poured into the Sea, no doubt but it returns from the Ocean to the Heads of the Rivers thro' fubteraneous Paffages, or by Dew and Rain. We shall not contend about this; for we do not, in the Proposition, mean fuch Springs as these; but whether there are Springs in the Caverns of the Earth, under the Chanel of the Sea, which supply the Ocean with

Water.

4. IT appears probable, that there are fuch Springs in the Chanels of the Sea; because there is found, in fome Places, fresh Water at the Bottom of the Sea, which must certainly arise from Springs in the very Chanel. Linschoten tells us, that in the Gulph of Ormus, near the little Island Bareyn, there is brought up fresh Water, by the Divers, at four or five Fathoms depth; and the like Springs are found at the Bottom of the Seas and Bays. To this we answer; that there are but few fuch Springs found, and those not sufficient

to supply the Ocean with Water; besides the

Queftion is not about fuch, as we faid before. FROM these Things it appears, that the Sea may be rightly said to have Springs in some Sense, tho' different from what we mean by the Springs of Rivers; in which Sense this Proposition ought to be understood. Hence also we know what to think of the Question; Whether the Ocean be always one and the same, and constantly remains so, or whether it be a Body whose Parts are consumed and renewed again perpetually.

## PROPOSITION VIII.

The Saltness, or Salt Taste, of the Sea-Water proceeds from the Particles of Salt which are mixed with it: but whence these Particles proceed, or how they are continued and increased, is uncertain.

EXPERIENCE proves the first Part of this Proposition, for every Body knows that Salt is made either by evaporating Sea Water with the Sun, or by boiling it with the Heat of our Fires. In Germany, and other Countries, they make use of Fire to separate the Water from it. But in France, where the Sun is hotter, the Sea-Water is let into Pits or Ponds, where in a few Months, by the extream Heat of the Sun, it's fresh Particles are exhaled or evaporated, and it's falt ones are concreted and formed into Grains of Salt. Also upon the Shores of several Countries, as England, &c. there is gathered abundance of Bay-Salt, which the Sea (continually overflowing them) leaves daily in moist Particles, from whence the most subtile, or fresh, Parts are exhaled, and what is left becomes Heaps of Grains of Salt, whose Blackness is taken off by boiling; tho' this fort of Salt is washed away and dissolved from many Shores by

the Violence of the Ocean, and therefore is not found upon all Shores. And fince this is a common Experiment which every one knows, Aristotle need not have instanced a false one (by letting down a Vessel of Wax into the Sea) to prove the Truth of this Proposition.

HENCE it appears, that the true Cause of the Saltness of Sea Water, is the Particles of Salt which are contained in it, and mixed with it. Therefore the Aristotelians, with their Master, speak improperly, and obscurely, when they affert that this Saltness is caused by the Waters being extreamly heated by the Rays of the Sun; but of this we shall same more by and by.

BUT the chief Controverse is about the other part of the Proposition, viz. whence these Parti-

cles of Salt proceed?

ARISTOTLE was of Opinion that the dry Exhalations, or Fumes, (which he thought were burnt, and of a faline Nature) being elevated from the Earth, and mixed with moist Particles, when they are turned into Rain, fall down with it into the Sea, and that from thence proceed the faline Particles, and the Saltness in the Sea-Water. These are his express Words in Lib. ii. Chap. vii. Meteor. And he takes a great deal of Pains to defend this Opinion, because by it he could shew a Reason why the Sea continues always falt.

OTHER Peripatetics (who also pretend to have Aristotle on their Side) affert, that the Sea is falt in itself, by reason of it's being perpetually fcorthed with the Sun-Beams; and for this Reason they fay it is fresher towards the Bottom, and saltest

at the Surface.

BOTH these Opinions labour under such great Difficulties and Absurdities, that it is a Wonder so many learned Men and Philosophers could be fatisfied with them.

THESE

THESE things may be objected against Aristotle's Hypothesis; 1. That Rain-Water, according to this, ought to tafte falt, upon the Ocean, which is contrary to Experience, for it is found not to tafte falt at all. And Scaliger's Remedy for this is infufficient, who fays, that it ought not to taste so at first, because the hor Vapour hath not had time to be condenfed, being more rare, and also having lately descended from a colder Region of the Air; but such Rain-Water hath been preserved several Days by Mariners, in which time it would certainly have tasted falt, if it had held any in it. 2. The less it rained the less falt would the Sea-Water taste, which is found

to the contrary.

THE other Opinion hath these Absurdities: 1. It is false that the Sea is not so brackish nearer the Bottom; for this only happens where Springs of fresh Water rise from the Bottom of the Chanel. 2. Experience shews that fresh Water doth not become falt by long boiling, or by being long exposed to the Sun. Scaliger likewise endeavours to obviate this Objection by a fubtile Argument. He fays that this happens so by reason of the smallness of the quantity of that Water which is used in the Experiment, which doth not thicken but is diffolved. But let us take ever fo great a Quantity, and put it over a gentle Fire, that the Dissolution (into Vapours as he means) may be hindred, yet the Water will taste no more brackish than it did at first. 3. Lakes and Marshes, though they are constantly heated by the Sun-Beams, yet do not grow falt. Scaliger also would wave this Objection, faying, that this happens because of the continual Succession of fresh Water. But if we observe Lakes and Moraffes that are fed only by Rain and melted Snow, where there is no such Succession, we shall find VOL. I. P them

them rather to dry up, thro' a long want of Rain, than to become brackish, or be turned into Salt.

THEREFORE, rejecting these false Opinions concerning the Origin of Salt in the Ocean, let us lay hold of fome others that feem more probable (f).

I. THESE

(f) The most probable Cause of the faltness of the Ocean is thus explained by Dr Halley, in Philof. Trans. No 344. ' I have observed (fays he) that ' all the Lakes in the World, properly fo called, are found o to be falt, fome more fome e less than the Ocean Sea, which, in the prefent Case, " may also be esteemed a Lake; fince by that Term I mean fuch standing Waters as perpetually receive Rivers runs ming into them, and have no Exit or Evacuation.

' The number of these Lakes. in the known Part of the World, is exceeding small, and indeed, upon enquiry, I ' cannot be certain there are in all any more than four or five, " viz. 1. The Caspian Sea. 2. . The Mare Mortuum, or Lacus · Asphaltites. 3. The Lake on which stands the City of " Mexico; and 4. Titicaca a ' Lake in Peru, which, by a Chanel of about fifty Leagues, " communicates with a fifth and " fmaller, called the Lake of " Paria, neither of which have any other Exit. Of these the " Caspian, which is by much \* the greatest, is reported to be · fomewhat less falt than the ' Ocean. The Lacus Asphal-' tites is so exceeding falt, that ' it's Waters feem fully fated, or fcarce capable to diffolve ' any more; whence, in Sum-' mer time, it's Banks are in-' crustated with great Quan-' tities of dry Salt, of somewhat a more pungent Nature ' than the Marine, as having a relish of Sal Ammoniac; as ' I was informed by a curious ' Gentleman that was upon the

· Place. ' The Lake of Mexico, pro-' perly speaking, is two Lakes divided by the Caufways that ' lead to the City, which is ' built in Islands in the midst of the Lake, undoubtedly for ' it's Security; after the Idea, ' it is possible, it's first Founders borrowed from their Beavers, who build their Houses ' in Damms they make in the Rivers after that manner. ' Now that part of the Lake ' which is to the northwards of the Town and Caufways, receives a River of a confiderable Magnitude, which being fomewhat higher than the other, does with a fmall fall exonerate itself into the southern Part which is lower. ' Of these the lower is found

1. THESE Particles are coëval with the Ocean itself, and therefore it is the same thing to enquire about the Origin of the terraqueous Globe, and the Fabric of the whole World, as to difpute how the Ocean came to be falt.

2. I F this Opinion do not please, we will propose another, viz. that these Particles were, in times past, washed and disjoined from the Earth, and diffolved in the Water; for we need not doubt but that there are feveral Mountains and Rocks of Salt in the Chanel of the Sea. The Island of Ormus is nothing but white hard Salt, of which they make the Walls of their Houses, and there

' to be falt, but to what De-' gree I cannot yet learn; ' though the upper be almost fresh.

' And the Lake of Titicaca, ' being near eighty Leagues in ' Circumference, and receiving ' feveral confiderable fresh Ri-· vers, has it's Waters, by the ' Testimony of Herrera and ' Acosta, so brackish as not to be potable, tho' not fully fo ' falt as that of the Ocean; and the like they affirm of ' that of Paria, into which the · Lake of Titicaca does in part exonerate itself, and which I doubt not will be found ' much falter than it, if it were

' enquired into. ' Now I conceive, that as all the Lakes mentioned do ree ceive Rivers, and have no ' Exit or Discharge, so 'twill be necessary that their Waters ' rife until fuch time as their · Surfaces are fufficiently extended, fo as to exhale in ' Vapour that Water that is ' poured in by the Rivers; and

confequently that Lakes must be bigger or leffer according to the Quantity of the fresh ' Water they receive. But the ' Vapours thus exhaled are per-' feetly fresh, so that the saline ' Particles that are brought in ' by the Rivers remain behind, whilst the fresh evaporates; ' and hence 'tis evident, that ' the Salt in the Lakes will be ' continually augmented, and ' the Water grow falter and ' falter. But in Lakes that have ' an Exit, as the Lake of Gennefaret, otherwise called that of Tiberias, and the upper Lake of Mexico, and indeed in most others, the Water be-' ing continually running off, is supplied by new fresh River-' Water, in which the faline ' Particles are fo few as by no ' means to be perceived.

' Now if this be the true Reason of the Saltness of these Lakes, 'tisnot improba-' ble but that the Ocean itself ' is become falt from the fame

' Caufe, &c.

is not one Spring of fresh Water in the whole Island. There are also several Mines of Salt in the Earth, as every one knows, some of which we have described in Chapter xi. But there is no need of particular Examples; let us confider the whole Earth, and we shall find a great Part of it to be nothing but Salt; it's Coherence and Composition is by Salt, and, as Chemists and Natural Philosophers rightly observe, all solid Bodies are concreted and joined by Salt; which Experience also proves; for if any hard Body be burned and confumed to Ashes, much Salt will be found in ir.

NOTHING can be alledged against this Opinion of any Weight, and which may not be eafily refuted. Some have thought it impossible that these falt Particles of the Earth should perpetually fuffice, and should not at some time be quite washed away by the Water of the Ocean, which constantly takes away some Part of them: To which we answer; that the Salt, thus wrought upon, is not fo much leffened as to need great recruiting; and if any be disjoined, or shaken from the rest, it is not carried without the Ocean, but laid up in some other Place.

#### PROPOSITION IX.

Whether the Sea-Water be fresher nearer the Bottom? and why, in some Places, fresh Water is drawn from the Bottom of the Ocean?

TO these Questions I answer; That we have not found it fresher near the Bottom, except in some particular Places; where, it is very probable, there are Springs of fresh Water. For it is against Nature that Salt Water should float above fresh, when it is heavier.

THOSE Places of the Sea where there feem to be fresh Water Springs, at the Bottom, the Studious may collect out of Geographical Authors (f).

## PROPOSITION X.

The Water of the Ocean is less falt by how much it is nearer the Poles, and saltest about the Equator, or in the Torrid Zone.

THIS is only to be understood of most Parts of the Ocean, for the Proposition admits of some few Exceptions.

THERE are several Reasons for this unequal

Saltness, viz.

I. THAT the Heat of the Sun in the Torrid Zone exhales more Vapours than in the northern Countries, and these Vapours are all fresh Water for the Particles of Salt are not so easily evaporated by reason of their Gravity; and therefore the

(f) That the Curious may not be at a Loss to examine the Saltness of the Water at several Depths, Dr Hook invented an Instrument to fetch it up at any Depth, which is described in Philos. Trans. N° 9. Page 149. and N° 24. Page 447. or in Lowthorp's Abridgment, Vol. 2. Page 260. Thus:

Let there be made a fquare wooden Bucket C, (Fig. 21.) whose Bottoms EE, are so contrived, that as the Weight A sinks the Iron B, to which the Bucket C, is sastened by two Handles DD, on the end of which are the moveable Valves or Bottoms EE, and thereby draws down the Bucket; the

Resistance of the Water keeps up the Bucket in the Posture C, whereby the Water hath, all the while it is descending, a clear Passage through; whereas, as soon as the Bucket is pulled upwards by the Line F, the Resistance of the Water to that Motion, beats the Bucket downwards, and keeps it in the Posture G, whereby the included Water is kept from getting out, and the ambient Water kept from getting in.

By the advantage of this Veffel, you may know the Conflitution of the Sea-Water in feveral Depths; and whether it be falter at, and towards, the

Bottom.

P 3

Water

Water that is left in the Ocean ought to be more falt about the Equator than towards the Poles, where there is not so much fresh Water exhaled because of the weak Heat of the Sun.

- 2. A fecond Caufe is the Heat and Coldness of the Water; for the fame Water, falt Meat, pickled Beef, Pork, &c. taste salter when hot than when cold, as every one knows from his own Obfervation: because the Heat, or the Particles of Fire, agitate and sharpen the Particles of Salt contained in fuch Meat, and separate them one from another; fo that they strike and prick the Tongue more sharply. Therefore, because the Sea-Water near the Equator is hotter, and coldest towards the Poles, it follows, that tho' every Part of the Ocean were admitted to be of equal Saltness, yet it ought to taste saltest about the Equator, and freshest near the Poles.
- 3. A third Cause is a greater or less quantity of Salt in divers Parts of the Chanel of the Sea; for as we find not Mines of Salt all over the dry Land, nor a like quantity of Salt in the Places where they are found, the same may be supposed at the Bottom of the Ocean, where some Shores and Chanels are not fo full of Salt as others. Therefore where there is a greater quantity of Salt at the Bottom of the Ocean, there the Sea-Water is more falt, because there is greater Plenty of this Mineral imbodied or foaked in it, as is eafy to conceive. For this Reason the Sea-Water near the Isle of Ormus is extream falt, because the Island itself is all Salt. But whether there be a greater quantity of Salt Mines under Water in the Torrid Zone than about the Poles is uncertain for want of Observations; but some think it probable (because of the greater Heat of the Sun whereby the fresh Particles are exhaled)

CHAP. 13. of Universal Geography. 215

that there is more Salt in the former: tho' this be but a weak Reason.

- 4. A fourth Cause is the frequency and scarcity of Rain or Snow. In the northern Countries they have both very frequent: but under the Torrid Zone they have no Rains at all for some Parts of the Year, and at other Times they are almost constant. Therefore, in these Places, the Ocean, near the Shores, is not fo falt in rainy Months as it is in dry ones. Yea in feveral Places on the Coast of Malabar, in India, the Sea-Water tastes sweet in the rainy Months, by reason of the vast quantity of Water which flows from off Mount Gate, and falls there into the Sea. This is the Reason why, at different Times of the Year, the same Parts of the Ocean are of different Degrees of Saltness. But because in the northern Countries there are constant Rains and Snow almost throughout the whole Year, therefore the Sea there is less falt than in the Torrid Zone.
- 5. A fifth Cause is the different quality of the Water to dissolve and mix the Salt with it; for hot Water diffolves Salt much fooner than cold: and therefore tho' there were the fame quantity of Salt under Water in the Chanels of the Sea, near the Poles, as about the Equator; yet because the Water is cold there, it cannot fo quickly diffolve it into minute Particles and mix with it, as the Water in the Torrid Zone which is hotter.
- 6. A fixth Cause is the great and many large Rivers that empty themselves into the Sea; but these only cause an Alteration upon the Coasts; for the main Ocean is not fenfibly affected by them, Mariners relate that upon the Coast of Brasil where the Rio de la Plata empties itself into the Sea, the Ocean loses it's falt Taste, at almost fifteen Leagues Distance from the Shore; and the sanie

P 4

may be faid of the African Ocean on the Coast of Congo, and in feveral other Places, as about Malabar in India, (as was observed before) &c. To these Causes we may add the springing up of fresh Water in some places from the Bottom of the Sea.

THESE Causes (whether separate or united) make a great variety of Saltness in different Parts of the Ocean, and by thefe that variety is explain-

ed and accounted for.

HENCE there is given a Reason why the Water of the German and northern Ocean will not yield fo much Salt by boiling, as the Water of the western Ocean about Spain, the Canary Islands, and Cape Verd in Africa, (from whence the Dutch fetch abundance of Salt and transport it to several northern Countries, viz. to Prussia, Poland, &c.) because these Coasts are nearer the Torrid Zone than the other; tho' perhaps both their Chanels may contain an equal quantity of Salt.

THE Sea-Water in the Ethiopic Ocean, over against Guinea, yields white Salt, with once boiling, as fine as Sugar, fuch as neither the Spanish Ocean, nor any other in Europe will produce at once

boiling.

# PROPOSITION XI.

Why Rain-Water catched in the middle of the Ocean is found to be sweet and fresh, when it proceeds from the Vajours which are exhaled from the Sea; whereas the Water, which, by boiling or distilling, we separate from the salt Water of the Sea, is found to be falt.

THOSE that have diligently fearched into the Secrets of Nature, I mean the learned Chemists, (not those ignorant Pretenders to Chemistry)

have

have hitherto laboured in vain to find out a Method of distilling or extracting fresh Water from the Sea-Water, which would be of great use and advantage to Navigation (g). And tho' both by Decoction and Distillation, which are in Essect the same, there is Salt lest in the Bottom of the

(g) Mr Hauton first found out the Secret of making Sea-Water sweet. It consists first in a Precipitation made with the Oil of Tartar, which he knows to draw with fmall Charges. Next he diffils the Sea-Water; in which the Furnace taketh up but little Room, and is fo made, that, with a very little Wood or Coal, he can distil twenty four French Pots of Water in a Day; for the cooling of which he hath this new Invention, that instead of making the Worm pass thro' a Vessel full of Water (as is the ordinary Practice), he maketh it go thro' a Hole, made on purpose out of the Ship, and to enter in again thro' another; fo that the Water of the Sea performeth the cooling Part; by which means he faveth the Room which the common Refrigerium would take up; as also the Labour of changing the Water when the Worm hath heated it. But then, thirdly, he joins to the two precedent Operations Filtration, whereby perfectly to correct the malignity of the Water. This Filtration is made by means of a peculiar Earth, which he mixeth and stirs with the di-Rilled Water, and at length fuffers to fettle at the Bottom.

He maintains that this distilled Sea-Water is altogether sa-

lubrious: he proves it from Experience, it having been given to Men and Basts, without any ill Effect at all upon them. Secondly, from Reason grounded on this, that that peculiar Earth being mixed with the distilled Water, blunts the Points of the volatile Spirits of the Salt, and ferveth them for Sheaths, if I may so speak, taking away their Force and malign sharpness. Philos. Trans. abridged by Lowthorp. Vol. 2. Page 297.

I have been credibly informed by experienced Sailors (particularly fome that had an Engine on Board) that Salt-Water made fresh by Distillation, would not quench Thirst; but that, when they had drank as much as they could get down, their Thirst, was not at all abated. So necessary are the Impregnations, which the Waters receive in their pasfages about the Earth, to make them nutritive. And the richer. and more fulphureous, those Impregnations are, fo much the richer, and better, fuch Waters are accounted. An instance of which we have in the Richness and Spirituousness of the Thames Water at Sea, which no doubt it receives from it's Impregnations by the Soil, and Filth, of the London Kennels.

Vessel, yet the Water thus separated is still falt, and not fit for drinking, which feems strange to those that are ignorant of the Cause of it. This is taught by Chemistry (which is the truest Philofophy), by the help of which there are found two kinds of Salt in all Bodies, which tho' they perfeetly agree in tafte, yet they exceedingly differ in other Qualities: Artists call the one fixed Salt, the other volatile. The fixed Salt, because of it's Gravity, is not evaporated by Distillation, but remains in the Bottom of the Vessel: but the volatile Salt is spirituous, and indeed nothing but a most subtile Spirit, which is easily raised with a very gentle Fire; and therefore in Distillation ascends with the fweet Water, and is well mixed with it by Reason of the subtilty of it's Particles. This fixed and volatile Salt is found, by Chemists, to be not only in Sea-Water, but almost in all Bodies, tho' more in fome than in others; in Herbs that taste sharp there is more, but in oily and insipid Things lefs. The Difficulty therefore lies in separating the volatile Salt, or the falt Spirit, from the Water; for it is this which hath rendered all the Efforts hitherto fruitless.

BUT why Rain-Water should be as sweet and fresh on the main Ocean as it is at Land, when it is generated from Exhalations, which arise from the Sea by the Heat of the Sun, or is exhaled by the Force of subterraneous Fire, which Evaporation no way differs from Distillation, there seemeth

to be a fourfold Caufe.

r. A flow and gentle Evaporation, by which only the more subtile Part is exhaled out of the Ocean, which tho' it contain the volatile Spirit of Salt, yet it is in a less quantity than when the Evaporation is made by a strong Heat. 2. The long Space which this Vapour passes thro' before it arrives at that Region of the air where it is condensed.

CHAP. 13. of Universal Geography. 219

densed into Rain: in which Passage it is possible that the saline Spirit may be by degrees separated from the watery Particles. 3. The Mixture of other fresh Particles of Water that are in the Air. 4. The Resrigeration and Coagulation or Condensation of the Vapour. For these Vapours in their ascent from the Ocean become, by degrees, colder, and mixing with others in their Way, they are condensed and turned into Clouds; and in this Resrigeration and Condensation the saline Spirits sly away, with siery Particles, into a higher Place of the Air.

BUT why this doth not happen in Distillation (where the Vapours exhaled become more cool and condensed) proceeds from hence: 1. Inthis thort Passage the saline Spirit sticketh close to the watery Particles. 2. The Vapour is kept in a Vessel which doth not admit the Spirit to sly thro' it.

### PROPOSITION XII.

Sea-Water is heavier than fresh; and Sea-Water in one Place is heavier than in another (h).

THE Reason of this is plain from what we have said before, viz. that the Sea-Water contains a fixed Salt which is a much heavier Body than

(b) Mr Boyle having recommended this Matter, among others, to a learned Physician that was failing to America, and furnished him with a small hydrostatical Instrument to observe, from time to time, the differences of Gravity he might meet with; this Account was returned him; 'that he found, by the Glass, the Sea-Water to

' increase in Weight the nearer he came to the Line, 'till he

arrived at a certain Degree of Latitude; as he remembers it was about the 30th; after

' which the Water seemed to retain the same specific Gravity ' 'till he came to Barbadees, or

"Jamaica. Lowthorp's Abridgment of Philos. Transact. Page

' 297, Vol. 2.

fresh Water: and we have shewn that there is a different Quantity of Salt in different Parts of the Sea; which must cause the Gravity of the Water to be unequal. But some Sea-Water may happen to taste more salt than others, and yet be not more weighty; because it perhaps contains a greater Quantity of volatile Salt, which does rather diminish than increase it's Weight, tho' it make it more salt.

## PROPOSITION XIII.

Sea-Water doth not so easily freeze as fresh; or a greater Degree of cold is required to congeal Sea-Water, than to congeal fresh.

EXPERIENCE shews this, contrary to the Opinion of the *Peripatetics*, who mentioned that by how much Water is more pure, it is less liable to freeze, and that Sea-Water being more elementary than fresh will freeze the sooner; which is false.

BUT the Cause is, that in Salt there is a certain Spirit which resists Coagulation, and this being separated from it, will not congeal in the hardest Frost, as is well known to Chemists: for they frequently make use of this Spirit of Salt (i).

(i) The Particles of two different Bodies, which would be more at Reft when feparate, when they are mixed are put into new Motions by Attraction, which acts upon them only when they approach one another; and causes them to meet and clash with great Violence, and to keep hot with the Mo-

tion. So that Water mixed with Salt, is more in Motion than Water alone; and therefore the Particles of Sea-Water are not so easily congealed, or made to rest, as the Particles of fresh, which do not resist the cold with such violent Motions. See Newton's Optics. Pag. 355.

#### PROPOSITION XIV.

Why the Ocean is not enlarged when it receives fo many Rivers.

THE Cause is; 1. The Water returns from the Sea, thro' subterraneous Fissures to the Heads of the Rivers. 2. Plenty of Vapours are raised from the Ocean, a great Part of which being turned into Rain, fall partly into the Ocean, and partly on the dry Land (k).

P R O-

(k) Since the Ocean constantly receives a prodigious quantity of Water, both from Rivers that exonerate themselves into it, and also from the Air, in Dew, Rain, and Snow, that fall; it is impossible but it should be enlarged, and increase to an immense Bulk, unless it be as much leffened fome other way. And feeing there hath not been observed any such great increase in the Sea, and that the bounds of the Earth and Ocean are found to be in all Ages the fame, it remains that we inquire by what means the Ocean loses so much Water as it receives from Rain and Rivers flowing into it. There are two Hypotheses among Philosophers; one is, that the Water of the Sea is carried, by fubterraneous Conduits to the Springs of Rivers, and, in it's draining thro' the Fiffures. loses it's Saltness: the otheris, that it happens by the Vapours that are drawn up from it's Surface. The former is now re-

jected by most, it being difficult. if not impossible, to explain how the Water of the Ocean, being more depressed than the very Mouths of the Rivers, can come up to their Springs, which are, for the most part, on very high Mountains; but in the latter Hypothesis we have no Occasion to explain this, neither to hinder the Growth of the Ocean, nor to fupply the Springs with Water; both which may be more eafily done by the Vapours, which we certainly know to be drawn up from the Surface of the Sea.

The quantity of Vapours drawn up from the Sea was tried by Dr Halley, who made the following Computation. *Philof. Tranf.* N° 189. Page 366.

By an Experiment made with great Care he found that Water, falted to the fame Degree as is common Sea-Water, and heated to the fame Degree of Heat, which is observed to be that of Air in our hottest Sum-

#### PROPOSITION XV.

Some Parts of the Ocean differ in Colour from others.

WE observe that towards the North Pole, the Sea feems to be of a black Colour, and in the Torrid Zone of a dusky Colour, and in other Places of a green Colour. Upon the Coast of New Guinea,

the

mers, to exhale the thickness of a fixtieth Part of an Inch in two Hours. From whence it appears that a Bulk of Water a tenth Part of an Inch high will be exhaled into Vapours in twelve Hours.

So that if the Superficies of the whole Ocean, or a Part of it, as the Mediterranean Sea be known, it may also be known how much Water arises in Vapour from it every Day; supposing the Water to be equally hot with the Air in Summer.

" For from what hath been " laid down, a Superficies of " ten fquare Inches emits daily " a cubic Inch of Water; " one fquare Foot, half a " Pint; a Square whose fides " are 4 Feet, one Gallon; a " fquare Mile, 6914 Tuns; " and one Degree square, (sup-" posed confisting of 69 Eng-" lish Miles) 33 Millions of " Tuns."

This learned Gentleman oftimates the Mediterranean to be about forty Degrees long, and four broad; allowances being made for the Places where it is broader by those where it is narrower, so that it's whole Superficies may be accounted one hundred and fixty fquare Degrees; and confequently the whole Mediterranean must lose in Vapour, according to the forestated Proportion, in a Summer's Day, at least five thousand two hundred and eighty millions of Tuns. For what quantity of Water is licked off the Surface by the Winds, (which is even more fometimes than is exhaled by the Heat of the Sun) feems impossible to be reduced to any Rule.

It remains that we compare this quantity of Water with that which is carried daily into the Sea by the Rivers, which is very difficult to do, when we can neither measure the Breadth of the Chanels of these Rivers, nor the Velocity of the Currents. One thing is left, that a Comparison being made between thefe and the River Thames, and by supposing them rather greater than they are, we may have a greater quantity of Water than is really poured by them into the Mediterranean.

The Mediterranean receives these nine considerable Rivers; the Iberus, the Rhone, the Tiber,

the

the Sea in some Parts appears white, and in others yellow: In Streights, or narrow Seas, it appears whitish. Upon the Coast of Congo, not far from Baya d' Alvaro, where the small River Gonzales falls into the Sea, the Water is of a reddish Colour which Tincture it receives from a red mineral Earth, thro' which the River slows. But the most samous for it's Colour is the Arabian Gulph, being therefore called the Red Sea. Some will have it to be only a bare Name, and taken from Erythrus, some time King on that Coast; others will have it to be called red from a certain Brightness peculiar to it, which is caused by the reflected Rays of the Sun (l). But the most probable Opinion, and which

the Po, the Danube, the Neisler, the Borysthenes, the Tanais, and the Nile; all the rest being of no great Note. Each of these Rivers, this ingenious Gentleman supposes to be ten times greater than the Thames, not that any of them is so great in Reality, but to comprehend with them all the small Rivulets that fall into the same Sea.

He supposes the River Thames, at King fton Bridge, where the Flood feldom reaches. to be in breadth about 100 Yards, and in depth 3; and the Water to run two Miles an Hour. If therefore the breadth of the Water, 100 Yards, be multiplied by 3, the depth, and the Product 300 square Yards by 48 Miles, or 84480 Yards, which the Water runs every Day, the product will be 25344000 cubic Yards of Water, or 20300000 Tuns that are carried every Day into the Sea.

Now if each of the aforefaid nine Rivers yield ten times as much Water as the Thames at will follow, that each of them carries every Day into the Sea 303 Millions of Tuns and the whole nine, 1827 Millions of Tuns in a Day.

But this is but little more than one third of what is proved to be raised, in Vapour, out of the Mediterranean in twelve Hours time. Hence it appears that the Mediterranean is so far from increasing or overflowing by the Rivers running into it, that in a short Time it would rather be evaporated, and drawn out, unless the Vapours that it exhaled returned in Dew or Rain upon it.

Jurin's Appendix.

(1) Some will have this to be the same with Esau or Edom, who sirt inhabited Idumæa, a Country near the Arabian Gulph, from whence, say they, it came to be called the Red-Sca, viz. from Edom, i. e. Red.

is confirmed by Experience, is, that it came to be fo called from the red Sand that lies upon the Shore, and is often contrary to it's Nature, mixed with the Water by the vehement Flux and Reflux of the Sea, which is extraordinary in this Gulph; infomuch, that it toffes it to and again like Athes, and keeps it from falling to the Bottom by it's violent Agitation. This is related by Sailors, who tell us, that it fometimes appears as red as Blood; but if it be kept in a Veffel without shaking, the red Sand will subside, and may be seen in the Bottom. It very often happens, that violent Storms blowing from the Red-Sea, towards Arabia or Africa, carry with them such Heaps of red Sand, as to cover whole Caravans, or Troops of Men and Beafts, whose Bodies in time are thus converted into true Mummy. There are other Opinions among Authors, about the Name of this Gulph, but they are all of no Weight, as appears from Experience.

WHETHER the same or some other Cause, hath urged Mariners to call the Gulph of California or (Vermejo) the Red-Sea, I have not yet sound

observed by Authors.

### PROPOSITION XVI.

There are certain Peculiarities observed in some Parts of the Ocean.

THE Sea called by the Portuguese di Sargasso, begins about the Salt Islands, nor far from Cape Verd, and extends itself from the 20th Degr. of North Latitude, and to 34 Degr. South. It seems to be of a green Hue, tho' this be not it's proper Colour, but owing to a certain small leaved Herb, (not unlike Water-cresses) which we call the Sea-Lentile, or small leaved Parsy, but the Portuguese Sargasso. The Leaves of this Weed are so mutually

tually intermixed one with another that they cover the Surface of the Ocean in this Place; fo that the Water can fcarcely be feen, and Sailors afar off take it to be an Island or green Fields; nor can they fail thro' this Knot of Herbs unless they be driven by a tolerable Wind. The Herb bears a small Berry, not unlike our red Currants, but insipid and hollow within. Whence they proceed is uncertain, not from the Land for that is too far off this Sea, nor from the Bottom (as I think) because the Ocean is here of a vast Depth and in many Places unfathomable.

BETWEEN the Cape of Good-Hope and the Islands of Tristan de Cunha, there are several long Stalks like Reeds of a considerable thickness, found floating on the Water, and these very often are entangled with Sea-Alkanet, or with Sargasso. The Sailors call them Thrombs, and they take it for a sure Sign if they meet with it at Sea, as they are failing to India, that either they are near the Cape

of Good-Hope, or have passed it.

UPON the Coast of the Island of Madagascar, the Ocean casts out red and white Coral, which grows like a Shrub under Water: and tho' they are soft in some Places, yet between Madagascar and Africa, there are said to be Rocks of hard Coral (m).

UPON the Coast of *Prussia* in the *Baltic*, the Sea casts up excellent Amber, which the Inhabi-

(m) Mr Guisony is of Opinion, that Coral is so far from being a Plant that 'tis a meer Mineral, composed of much Salt, and a little Earth; and that it is formed into that Substance by a Precipitation of divers Salts, that ensues upon the Encounter of the Earth with those Salts. This Sentiment he confirms by

alledging that he can shew a Salt of Coral, which, being cast into Water, and there disfolved, upon the Evaporation of that Water by a gentle Heat, is presently coagulated and converted into store of small Sticks resembling a little Forest. Philos. Trans. abridged by Lovothorp, Vol. 2. Page 493.

VOL. I.

tants

tants are taught to draw to the Shore with Nets of Wire, when certain Winds blow.

THE Ocean casts up Ambergris only in the Torrid Zone, (if we may believe fome Authors) viz. at the Shore of Brafil (where a Dutch Soldier once found a Piece weighing five hundred Pound, and presented it to Count Maurice of Nassau); also at Madagascar, at the Cape of Good-Hope, at the Island of Maurice (by the Portuguese called de Cerne), at Samatra, and other Indian Islands. Garcias relates, that there was a Piece one time found of two thousand Pound Weight, and that some Islands are all of Ambergris; but he does not tell us where they are fituated (n).

THE Ethiopic Ocean, at Guinea, Congo, and Angola, has this peculiar Property; that Shells as green as Grass stick to the Sides and Keels of Ships; while they remain or fail there, which re-

tard their Course and eat out the Timber.

UPON the Coast of Bretagne in France, wild Fowls are generated on the Sides and Keels of Ships, being at first unshapely, but afterwards are formed by degrees, and having their Bills fastened into the Wood, they begin to move, and at last pull themfelves off, and fwim in the Sea like Ducks. [Thefe we call Barnacles.]

(n) Ambergris is found in feveral other Places; as at Cape Comorin, there was taken up a Piece of three hundred Weight, and another weighing fifteen hundred Pound; at Ambergris-Point in Jamaica there was found a Piece one hundred and fifty Pound Weight; and in feveral Places without the Torrid Zone, as upon the Coast of New-England, on the western Coast of Ircland, &c.

Some will have it to be the Wax or Honey of fome living Creature; others say it issues out of the Root of a Tree, that grows in the Sea, like Gum; others that it is a Bitumen, and comes from the Entrails of the Earth, which is the most likely Opinion. See Philos. Trans. Nº 92. Page 611. N° 232. Page 711, and N° 263. Page 573.

THE Excrement of the Ocean, which we call Froth, is observed to float in several Places, and more in some than in others.

THERE are found Water Lentils in feveral Parts of the Ocean, as between England and France, upon the Coast of the South Continent, and elsewhere.

ON the Coast of Malabar and Cambaya there are found Serpents upon the Surface of the Water: from whence Sailors guess at their approach to these Countries.

ABOUT four Leagues from New-Spain, feveral Roots, Reeds, and Leaves, like those of the Fig-Tree, float to and again, upon the Water, which they commonly eat; and their Taste

is fomething like Cabbage.

WE read in the first Voyage of the Dutch to the Streights of Magellan, that on the twelfth of January 1599, the Water of the Ocean, not far from the Mouth of the Silver River, (Rio de Plata) appeared of a red and bloody Colour; but when they had drawn up a Bucket, and observed it more narrowly, they found in it an innumerable Multitude of little Worms of a red Colour, which, being taken into their Hands, leaped up and down like Fleas. Hence the Seamen call them Sea-Fleas\*, and believe that they are vomited by Whales, at a certain Time of the Year. Others think they proceed from an innumerable Company of

Months, as to change the Water red, or yellow, according to the Colour they are of. Of which Dr Florence Schuyl told Swammerdam this merry Story, 'That one day, when 'he was very intent in his 'Study, he was ditturbed with 'a horrible Rumour; and 2 'when

<sup>\*</sup> Dr Derham in his Phys. Theol. lib. iv. c. 11, Note (n) faith, the Insects that for the most part discolour the Waters, are the small Insects of the Shrimp-Kind, called, by Savammerdam, Pulex aquaticus arborescens. Which are sometimes so numerous in the Summer

of small Crabs, that fill the Sea towards the South Continent, so that in a weak Light, as in the Morning and Evening Twilight, the Ocean appears to Sailors of a bloody Colour.

BUT this is not the Place for treating of A-nimals of different Kinds that are found in dif-

ferent Parts.

#### PROPOSITION XVII.

Why the Sea appears bright and shining at Night; efpecially if the Waves are violently agitated with a Storm.

THIS Phænomenon requires the Knowledge of that difficult Point, the Cause of Colours. The Opinions of Philosophers are divided about it. They that explain Colours by certain and various Motions best solve the Phænomenon; the more accurate Explication of which belongs to Physics (0).

when he was fcarce gotten up to enquire what was the matter, his Maid, half dead with the fright, came running, and fighing told him, that all the Water of Leyden was changed to Blood. The Caufe of which, upon examination, he found to be from the numerous Swarms of those Pulices.

The Caufe of this Concourse and Appearance of those little Insects, Dr Derham says is for their Coitus. At which time they are very venereous, frisking, and catching at one another; and many of them conjoined Tail to Tail, with their Bodies inclined towards one another.

(a) The following Query of

Sir Isaac Neauton will perhaps give us the best Notion of this Appearance. 'Do not (fays he) ' all fixed Bodies, when ' heated beyond a certain Degree, emit Light, and shine? And is not this Emission performed by the vibrating ' Motions of their Parts? And ' do not all Bodies, which a-' bound with terrestrial Parts, and especially sulphureous ones, emit Light as often as ' those Parts are sufficiently agitated, whether that Agitation be made by Heat, or by ' Friction, or Percussion, or Putrefaction, or by any vital Motion, or any other Cause? as for Instance; Sea-Water in a raging Storm, &c. Optics Page 314. PRO-

## PROPOSITION XVIII.

The Ocean, and indeed all Waters, cast on the shore terrestrial Bodies, especially about the Time of Full-Moon.

IT is not difficult to explain the Reason of this Property, which is found to be true by Experience. For the Water being in Agitation continually, either one way or other, carries with it the terrestrial Bodies towards that Part whereto it is moved: which is always towards fome Shore, where the Motion ceasing they are left upon the Sand

BUT this Agitation of the Ocean is greatest at the Full-Moon.

THEREFORE their Opinions are abfurd who believe the Ocean to be a fensible living Creature, and that it continually purgeth itself of Dregs and terrestrial Bodies. The Reason of is here plain.





#### CHAP. XIV.

Of the Motion of the Sea in general; and of it's Flux and Reflux in particular.

### PROPOSITION I.

Water has but one natural Motion, by which it moves from a higher to a lower Place. And if the adjoining Places are of an equal Altitude, or higher than the Superficies of the Water, it naturally rests, and is not moved out of it's Place but by some external Cause.

OMMON Experience manifests the Truth of this Proposition. For if you take a Vessel of Water and move it, the Water will sluctuate, and be in Motion, 'till no part of it be higher than another; that is, 'till it's Superficies be spherical, as was said in Chapter xiii. And although perhaps this Motion may proceed from an external Cause, viz. the Pressure of the Atmosphere, or the Motion of the Air round the Globe; yet because there are great Disputes about this Cause, and the Motion is so apparent in the Water itself, that it doth not seem to proceed from any external Agent, therefore it may be called natural, to distinguish it at least from other Motions of the Water. And this Motion is towards that Part which is more depressed.

PRO-

### PROPOSITION II.

When any Part of the Ocean is moved, the whole is moved, or all the other Parts of the Ocean move successively; but the Motion is greater by how much it is nearer the Part first moved.

BECAUSE when one part of the Ocean is moved, it necessarily changes it's Place, and leaves that it was in, to be taken up by the Water that was next it; whose place is again supplied by the Water next that, and fo on. But the Motion becomes less in the more remote Parts; because that there the Water was first moved, the next to it rushes in, not from one Part, but all round about; fo that it leaves a round Space like the Periphery of a Circle, which is supplied from a larger Periphery, and that again from a larger, and fo on. But the greater the Periphery is from whence the Water flows, the lefs is the progressive Motion inwards, being distributed into a larger Space. Just as, when a Stone is thrown into the Water it forces it into a Round, and that forces the next Water to it into a larger Round and fo on; and the further these Peripheries are from the Immersion of the Stone, their Motion is diminished and less sensible; and tho' there may at last seem to be none all, yet there will be still some very small Undulation, except it be hindered by another Motion of the Water.

#### PROPOSITION III.

To find which way the Current of the Sea sets.

CHUSE a Time, if possible, when no great Winds are stirring, and cast a Body into the Water

ter of almost the same Gravity with it; mark the Place where it was thrown in, and let a Boat remain there immoveable; then, when the Body is carried by the Current a little way from the Place where it was thrown in, let another Boat be placed there; and observe how the one Boat bears from the other; and you have the Point of the Compass toward which the Current sets (a).

## PROPOSITION IV.

The Motion of the Sea is either direct, vortical, or tremulous.

I call the Motion direct, when the Water runs towards a certain Point; and vortical, when it turns round in a Whirl-Pool, and is at Times absorbed and vomited up; and tremulous, when it quakes, and is troubled without the least Wind. We shall defer the Consideration of the two last to the end of this Chapter; and treat, first, of the direct Motion, which we shall call, in general, the Motion of the Sea.

## PROPOSITION V.

Of the Motions we observe in the Sea, some are general, some particular, and others accidental.

(a) The Method that Sailors tommonly use, in the Gulph of Alexico, to keep the Boat immoveable where the Sea is deep, and perhaps not to be sounded is this. They fink down a Plummet of Lead about forty or fifty Pound Weight, to a certain number of Fathoms deep, as they are taught by Experience, and the' the Lead is nothing near the Bottom, yet will the Boat turn Head against the Cur-

rent, and ride as firmly as if it were fathened by the strongest Cable and Anchor to the Bottom; this Method will perhaps succeed in several other Places where there are under-Currents, such as have been observed in the Dozens, at the Streights-Month, and in the Baltic. See Dr Stubb's Observations in a Voyage to the Caribbee Islands. Philos. Trans. N° 27.

CHAP. 14. of Universal Geography.

2.33

I call that a general Motion of the Sea, which is

observed in all it's Parts, and at all Times.

I call those proper or particular Motions, whereby only some Parts of the Ocean are moved, which are twofold, either perpetual or anniversary; the former continue without Cessation or Intermission; the latter are inconstant, and only observed at some certain Months or Days.

THE accidental Motions of the Sea are such as now and then happen, without any regular Order;

and fuch as these are infinite.

# PROPOSITION VI.

The Winds cause the accidental Motions of the Sea, by blowing the Waters toward some opposite Point; nor is the Sea ever free from such Motions.

THE Wind, being nothing but a violent Motion of the Air, and a Preffure of it towards the Earth, endeavours to impel the Water of the Sea out of it's Place; and because the Sea is a Fluid, and cannot resist the Force and Pressure of the Air, it is hereby moved out of it's Place, towards the opposite Point, and drives the adjacent Water before it, and that again the Water before it, and so on.

A N D fince there is always fome Wind in the Air towards one Point of the Compass or another, and very often towards different Points, in divers Countries, at the same Time; it follows, that some of these Motions continually affect the Sea, but more sensibly where the Wind blows hardest; because it being a Fluid is soon put in Agitation by so violent an Agent.

### PROPOSITION VII.

The general Motion of the Sea is twofold; the one is constant, and from East to West: the other is composed of two contrary Motions, and called the Flux and Reflux of the Sea, by which, at certain Hours, it flows towards the Shores, and at others back again.

THAT the Ocean is continually moving from East to West, is chiefly proved from the Motion of the Sea which lies between the Tropics in the Torrid Zone; where it is strongest, and less impeded by other Motions.

THIS Motion of the Sea is manifestly perceived by those that sail from India to Madagascar, and Africa; also in the Pacific Ocean between New-Spain and China, and the Moluccas; likewife in the

Éthiopic Ocean, between Africa and Brasil.

THUS the Currents fet strongly, and run with a rapid Motion, from East to West, thro' the Streights of Magellan; which induced the first Discoverer (whether Magellan, or some other before him) to conjecture, that there were Streights thro' which they might fail out of the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean. Ships are carried by the Currents, from East to West, thro' the Streights of Manilba, and also thro' the little Chanels between the Maldivies. The Sea runs impetuously into the Gulph of Mexico, between Cuba and Yucatan, and flows out again, thro' a rapid Chanel, between Cuba and Florida. There is fo rapid a Flux into the Gulph of Paria, that the Streights are called the Dragon's Jaw. This Motion is also remarkable at the Land of Canada. The Sea feems to run out of the Tartarian Ocean thro' the Streights of Waygats, as appears by the fetting CHAP. 14. of Universal Geography. 23

of the Current, and the great Flakes of Ice which are commonly found in these Streights. Upon the northern Coast of America, the Pacific Ocean flows towards the Streights of Anian; there is also a Current from Japan towards China; and another from East to West, thro' the Streights of Macasser. In short, the whole Atlantic Ocean makes towards the Shores of America, and the Pacific from them, as is most remarkable about Cape Correntes, between Panama and Lima.

## PROPOSITION VIII.

The Winds frequently change the general Motion of the Sea, especially those called Periodical Winds, or Monsoons, which we shall treat of in Chapter xxi.

BECAUSE these Winds blow most frequently from the North or South, or from other collateral Points, they must needs obstruct the general Motion of the Sea, which is from East to West, and cause it to turn aside, from the West, towards the North-West, or South-West. And even the constant, or Trade-Winds, which seldom blow directly from the East, but from some other collateral Points, change this general Motion of the Sea in many Places. Also the North Winds make a most sensible Difference in this general Motion in the northern Ocean, where these Currents are not strong, except in a few Places.

## PROPOSITION IX.

The Cause of this general Motion of the Sea from East to West is uncertain.

THE Aristotelians (tho' neither they, nor their Matter, nor any European Philosopher, had the least Notion of these Things, before the Portuguese sailed thro' the Ocean in the Torrid Zone) suppose, that it is caused by the Prime Motion of the I-leavens, which is common not only to all the Stars, but even, in part, to the Air and Ocean; and by which they, and all things, are carried from East to West. Some Copernicans (as Kepler, Cc.) altho' they acknowledge the Moon, to be the prime cause of this Motion, yet they make the Motion of the Earth not a little contribute to it, by reason that the Water, being not joined to the Earth, but contiguous only, cannot keep up with it's quick Motion towards the East; but is retarded and left towards the West; and so the Sea is not moved from one Part of the Earth to another, but the Earth leaves the Parts of the Sea one after another.

OTHERS, who are fatisfied with neither of these Causes, have recourse to the Moon; which they will have to be the Governess of all Fluids, and therefore to draw the Ocean round with her from East to West. If you ask, how she performs this? They Answer, it is, by an occult Quality, a certain Influence, a Sympathy, her Vicinity to the Earth, and fuch like. It is very probable indeed the Moon, fome way or other, causes this Motion, because it is observed to be much more violent at the New and Full Moon, than about the Quadratures, when it is, for the most Part, but finall.

THE ingenious Des Cartes mechanically explains how the Moon may cause this Motion, both in the Water, and the Air. He supposes, according to his general Hypothesis, that there are an infinite number of Atoms, which revolve about the Earth, and fill up the Space be-

tween it and the Orbit of the Moon, fo as not to leave any Vacuum; this Space he calls the Earth's Vortex (b). Let FEHG (Fig. 22.) be the Earth, 2143 the Water, 6587 the Air, BADC the Vortex of the Earth, and B the Moon. Now, fays he, if there was no Moon in the Vortex BADC, it's Particles would without any Impediment revolve about the Center T; but fince the Moon is there, the Space, thro' which the celeftial Matter flows, is narrowest between B and T; therefore this Matter flows swifter between B and T, and by that means presses both the Superficies of the Air at 6, and of the Water at 2. more than if the Moon had not been in the Diameter of the Vortex BD: and because both the Air and the Water are Fluids, and eafily give

(b) The Flux and Reflux of the Sea, which Des Cartes has endeavoured to explain, by an imaginary Plenum and Vortices, may be more eafily and fully explained upon other Principles (as shall be shewn hereafter); for these are mere Fictions, and no way agreeable to Nature and Motion, as appears from the following Arguments.

1. If fome Vacuities were not supposed to be interspersed among the Particles of Bodies, it would be very hard to conceive how Motion could be any way performed. For if we suppose every Place to be absolutely full, a small Body cannot move ever fo little, without moving all the Bodies in the Universal, and whither, or to what Place, they should move, when all Places are already full is not eafy to conceive.

' 2. Since Comets are carried ' with a continual Motion thro' ' the heavenly Spaces, from ' every Part, and all Ways, and ' to all Parts; it is evident ' from thence, that the heavenly " Spaces must be void of any ' fenfible Refistance, and con-' fequently of any fensible ' Matter. Newton's Optics, · Page 310.

3. The Hypothesis of Vortices, and a Plenum, directly contradicts the Astronomical Phanomena, and tends more to confound the celeftial Motions than to explain them. See Neauton's Princip. Book 2. Schol. to Prop. 53, and the general Scholium at the end; and Clarke's Notes upon Robault's Physics. Part 1. Chap. 8. Art. 2. and on Part 2. Chap. 25. Art. 22.

way to Pressure, they ought to become lower under B, at 2, and higher under A, at 1. And while the Earth is turned from E, by F, towards G, or from West to East, the swelling of the Water 412, and of the Air 856, which is now highest at E, moves by little and little to the westward, and in fix Hours time is highest at the Part of the Earth H, and after twelve Hours at G. Hence it follows, that both the Water and the Air are perpetually moving from East to West. Thus far Des Cartes. The stress of his Demonstration lies here; that the Earth EFGH, and Water 1234, are revolved round the Center T. together with the celestial Matter in the Vortex, between BADC and 6587; but the Moon, being in B, makes the Space B6 narrower, whereby the celeftial Matter is squeezed thro', and in it's Passage presses the Air and Water below B, at 6 and 2. towards 5 and 1, and while E passes beneath B, it is pressed towards H and F, and so round. Nor doth this celeftial Matter, strained between B and 6, rebound upward being suppressed, because all things are full of Matter. And tho' it press the Air and Water from 62F not only towards the West E 15, but also towards the East 73G, yet because the Parts between F and G, to the eastward, are, by degrees, removed from the Streights B6, and the Parts towards E, to the westward, do more and more approach it, therefore this Force is chiefly received by thefe.

BUT the following Particulars feem wanting

in this ingenious Explanation.

I. IT should then follow, that the Sea would fettle when the Moon approached it, and rife in those Places that are distant a Quadrant, or fix Hours, from it, viz. it would fall at 2, where the Moon is vertical, and rife at 6. But this is contrary to Experience; for at 2, under the

the Moon, it rifes, and at 1 it falls. How this Abfurdity may be avoided, we shall shew in the

following Proposition.

2. IT is not plainly shewed (Des Cartes himself totally omitting it) why, when the celestial Matter in the Streight B6 presses the Air at 6, and the Water at 2, it is not equally moved towards G37. feeing that the Earth, and Air, and Water, are all carried that way, as well as the celestial Matter, which should therefore enforce the Air and Water rather towards the East than the West.

3. THE Moon approaching any Sea, there should a stronger Wind blow from East to West than at other Times; but this feldom happens.

4. IT is more likely that the Sun should cause this Motion of the Air, and these constant Winds, because in many Places they are observed to blow fresher a little before, or about, Sun-rising, when it is distant a Quadrant from the Vertex of the Place (c). These things are worthy to be considered in the aforesaid Explication, not to say any thing for or against the Hypothesis itself.

I very much doubt whether this Motion of the Sea has any relation to the general, or Trade-Winds; because these Winds, in the Torrid Zone, are constant; and therefore should cause the Motion of the Water to be constant also (d). Indeed when the Wind blows harder the Motion is perceived to be greater; but this is no Argument that they have a Dependance, or proceed one from another. What hinders is, that there appears to be

stant one, without doubt, is effected by the Trade-Winds. which constantly blow from East to West, tho' notwithstanding the Moon may interfere, and alter or divert it's ordinary Course.

<sup>(</sup>c) See the Notes upon Chap. xxi. Prop. 2. below, where the Caufe of these Trade-Winds is explained.

<sup>(</sup>d) As periodical Currents are produced by the shifting Winds or Monfoons: fo this con-

a Correspondence between the Motion of the Sea, and that of the Moon, for when this approaches the other, it causes it to swell at 2, and the Currents are observed to set stronger to the westward at the New and Full Moon, than at the Quadratures. This last is excellently explained by Des Cartes's Method; for fince the Moon is nearer the Earth at the New or Full than when she is in the Quadratures, the Paffage for the celeftial Matter, B6, is then made narrower, and therefore the Pressure is greater (e).

IF any should alledge, that perhaps the greater Light of the Moon, at Full, causes the greater Intumescence; I answer, that at the Change all her Light is taken away; which shews that Light is not the Cause of this Motion, but rather that Preffure of Des Cartes, which we shall further ex-

plain below.

### PROPOSITION X.

The second general Motion of the Sea is it's Flux and Reflux, by which, in about twelve Hours and a half's Time, the Water is found to flow towards the generality of Shores, and to ebb back again, viz. to flow when the Moon approaches the Meridian Circle above or below; and to cbb when it departs from thence towards the Horizon.

- (e) ' Neither the Moon's ' greatest Distance, nor her ' leaft, falls in the Quadratures
- but both there and in the
- ' Conjunction or Opposition;
- contrary to the Opinion of Des Cartes; who afferts, that
- ' the Orbit is elliptical indeed,
- but so that the leffer Axis of

- ' it is always in the Conjun-' Etions and Oppositions, or
- ' passeth thro' the Center of
- the Sun, and the greater in the Quadratures. Which
- ' Affertion is very wide of the ' Truth. Whifton's Aftrono-
- ' mical Lectures, Page 107.

WE are first to enquire whether the Sea slows towards one certain Point by this Motion, viz. from

East to West, or from West to East.

FOR the Shores of Bays, and the Chanels of Rivers, where this Flux and Reflux is chiefly observed, more than in the main Ocean, are divers ways extended; fome from West to East, as the Mediterranean Sea, and others from South to North, as the Arabian Gulph, &c. And in all these the Water flows thro' the Streights towards the furthest Point of their extent; and therefore in different Bays, this Flux of the Ocean tends towards divers Points of the Compass. We must therefore first be resolved, whether this Flux, or Motion, tends indifferently to any Point, or only observes two, viz. the West in flowing, and the East in ebbing; or even only the West in both ebbing and flowing? In my Opinion the last is truest, viz. that the whole Ocean is moved from East to West, both in it's Flux and Reflux, and that the difference is, that in it's Flux it is moved with greater violence and in a greater Quantity: but in it's Reflux (or more properly it's Deflux) tho' it be not moved a contrary Way, yet it feems to be fo, because there flows a less Quantity of Water.

HENCE we may determine, that the Flux and Reflux of the Sea is no way distinct from that general Motion, which we explained in the former Proposition, whereby the Ocean is perpetually moved from East to West; for it is only a certain Mode or Property of that Motion. And therefore if this Motion be observed, and rightly considered in the main Ocean, where it is not obstructed, we shall find it not to be so much a Flux and Reslux of the Sea, as a Flux and Deslux, or (that we may distinguish, by proper Terms, the Quality of the Motion or Flux from the Movel. I.

tion or Flux itself), it is most aptly called the

Swelling and Swaging of the Sea.

FOR the Sea perpetually flows from East to West, and only seems to flow back again, when it's more violent Force is flackened and wasted, which a little before was quickened and augmented. But this is called the Reflux, because the Sea seems, on Shores and in Bays, to approach and retire by fits, which is not owing to the quality of the Motion itself, but to the Situation of the Shores and Bays, which requires that the Water should fall back to the contrary Point; but the fettling of the Sea in general doth not proceed from the Situation of the Shores, but from the quality of the Motion of the Water.

BUT the Motion of the Sea can by no means be estimated by it's approach to the Shores, for whatever this Motion be, or to what Point foever it is made, it will always fluctuate towards the Shores; which happens by reason of the fluid Na-

ture of the Water.

THAT the Sea moves towards the same Point, that is, from East to West, both in the Flux and Reflux (or Swelling and Swaging), and never moves the contrary way, appears from the following Observations. 1. In the main Ocean between the Tropics, there is no other Motion perceived than this from East to West. 2. In Streights that join the Parts of the Ocean and run directly East and West, as the Streights of Magellan, Manilba, Java, and others among the Indian Islands; in these, I say, the Sea rises and settles in 12 Hours Time, but in settling it doth not flow back out of the Streights to the eastward; but is carried by other Passages, still to the westward; which is a plain Sign that this Ebbing and Flowing are not two contrary Motions, but a Modification of the general Motion from East to West.

So that Scaliger and all the rest are deceived, who represent this as a double Motion to and again.

IT is to be understood, that when we say this Motion is from East to West, we do not mean punctually the two cardinal Points, but include all their Collaterals, even to the North and South Poles, towards which however the Motion is weaker.

#### PROPOSITION XI.

To explain the Cause of the Swelling and Swaging of the Sea, vulgarly called it's Flux and Reslux (f). THERE

(f) Sir Isaac Newton most fuccefsfully explains as well the Flux and Reflux of the Sca, as most other Appearances of Nature, from his universal Principle of Gravity or Attraction. Gravitation is a certain Force imprinted on all Bodies by the Author of Nature, by which they mutually endeavour to accede: but how this Force is exerted we know not. Thus the Globe of the Sun and Planets gravitate mutually towards each other in proportion to their feveral Magnitudes, and Distances from one another. As to this Earth of ours, it hath but little Communication with the other Planets, whose Bodies are too fmall to affect us much, at fuch a vait Distance; only the Sun and Moon are respected by it, the one because it is placed so near us, and the other by reason of the Bulk of it's Body; which tho' it be at a vast Distance, yet acts with a strong attractive Force. For a Body is more

forcibly attracted by how much the Diffance of the Attrahent is nearer, or it's Bulk greater.

1. Thus; Let L (Fig. 23.) be the Moon, supposed to be above any Part of the Earth, covered with the Ocean asb: it is evident that this Place, being nearer the Moon than any other Part of the Earth, is more strongly drawn thereby, and fwelleth up towards it: But the Water in the Place a being diametrically opposite to the Place b, and further off from the Moon than the rest of the Earth, hath a less Tendency towards it than the other Parts: and therefore, being left as it were by the Earth, is lifted up, or fwelled, the contrary Way in a. Hence the Water flowing from d to e towards A and B. makes two Protuberances in the Ocean, the one in B directly under the Moon, the other in A just opposite to it; and these always shift and accompany the Moon in it's feeming Motion R 2 about

THERE is no Phænomenon in Nature that hath fo much exercifed and puzzled the Wits of Philofo-

about the Earth, and occasion thereby two Floods and Ebbs in the same Place, every sive

and twenty Hours.

2. Of these two Tides that happen in the Time of one diurnal Revolution in any Place, that is the greatest, wherein the Place cometh nearest the Eminence of the Water A or B. Thus, in fuch a Figure as the last, let, Pp (Fig. 24.) be the Poles, Æ Q the Equator, FG a Parallel to it, which any place describes by it's diurnal Motion; it appears that the two High-waters happen in the Place, when it is fituated in G or F, having the Moon in the Meridian; but the highest Tide is found in the Point G, which comes nearest the Eminence of the Waters in B. It further appears from the Figure, that the Moon, in the Time of the highest Tide, is above the Horizon of the Place, if the is on the fame fide of the Equator with the Place itself: but if the decline the contrary Way, she is under the Horizon in the Point A, at the Time of the highest Tide. For Example, in Europe the diurnal Tides are the highest of the two when the Moon is found in the elevated Semicircle of the Meridian, or in the Northern Signs of the Ecliptic; but the lowest when she is in the Southern Signs.

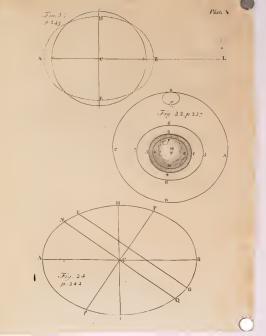
Moreover, the Height of the Tides is varied generally all over the Earth, according to the day

of the Month and the time of the Year.

3. For, because the attractive Force of the Sun reaches the Earth as well as that of the Moon; when both these Forces conspire, or are united, they raife the Waters highest, and make what we call Spring Tides; but when the Sun depresses what the Moon heaves up, then happen the lowest or Neap Tides. Thus we observe higher Tides when the Sun and Moon in Conjunction or Opposition, are right overany Place B, or diametrically opposite over A and B, than when they are in the Quadratures, viz. when the Sun is in the Point H or I, and the Moon in the intermediate Point A or B. But the Force of the Sun is finall compared with that of the Moon; because the Semidiameter of the Earth CB, by which the Water in B is nearer the Sun than the Center C, is fcarce fenfible, if compared with the immense Distance of the

4. Since the Eminences of Water are carried round the Earth by the diurnal Motion, the Motion, Agitation, and Heighth, of the Tides, are the greater, the larger the Circle is in which the Waters revolve. So the Moon being in the Equinoctial, and leading about the two opposite Eminences of Water in the Equator, makes greater Tides (catteris paribus) than when she is in the Tropics.

Hence



Philosophers and learned Men as this. Some have thought the Earth and Sea to be a living Creature, which, by it's Respiration, causeth this ebbing and flowing. Others imagined that it proceeds, and is provoked, from a great Whirlpool near Norway, which, for fix Hours, abforbs the Water, and afterwards difgorges it in the same space of Time. Scaliger, and others, supposed that it is caused by the opposite Shores, especially of America, whereby the general Motion of the Sea is obstructed and reverberated. But most Philosophers, who have observed the Harmony that these Tides have with the Moon, have given their Opinion, that they are entirely owing to the Influence of that Luminary. But the Question is, what is this Influence? To which they only answer, that it is an occult

Hence also both the Luminaries, placed in the Equinoctial at the Time of their Conjunction or Opposition, which happens near the Equinoxes in March, or September, produce the highest Tides in the whole

Which Experience also confirms, because the Sun is a little nearer the Earth in the Winter than in the Summer; therefore the highest Spring Tides happen a little before the Vernal Equinox, and a little after the Autumnal, viz. in February and October, rather than precifely upon the Equino-Etial Days.

5. The librating Motion of the Waters, which are apt to retain the Motion impressed upon them, and continue to move tho' the Actions of the Luminaries cease, make the greatest menstrual Spring Tides (explain'd

in Artic. 3.) not precifely on the New and Full Moons, but generally they are the third Tides

after them.

6. Thingswould happen constantly and regularly thus, if the whole Earth were covered with very deep Sea; but by reason of great and fmall Islands which ftop the Tide, and the Streights between them, also the Shelves and Shallows along which the Tides are to be propagated, the Variety of this Phænomenon is almost infinite, and scarcely to be explained by this Theory; but when just Observations are diligently made, all these particular Causes may be found out and known. See Newton's Prin. Math. Phil. Book 3. Prop. 24. Greg. Phys. and Geometr. Aitron. Book 4. Prop. 64, 65. al-fo Halley's Differtation in Phil. Tranf. Nº 226.

Jurin's Appendix. Quality,

Quality, or Sympathy, whereby the Moon attracts all moist Bodies. But these are only Words, and fignity no more than that the Moon does it by fome means or other, but they do not know how:

Which is the Thing we want.

DES Cartes explains it by his general Hypothesis thus: In the forementioned Figure of Proposition 9, let ABCD be the Vortex, with the Earth in it's Center, and which, with the Earth and Moon in it, is carried in a larger Vortex about the Sun. Let M be the Center of the first Vortex, EFGH the Earth, 1234 the Superficies of the Sea, which for plainness we will suppose to cover the whole Earth; and 5678 the Superficies of the Air furrounding the Sea. If therefore there were no Moon in the Vortex, the Point T, the Center of the Earth, would coincide with the Point M, the Center of the Vortex; but fince the Moon is about B, the Center of the Earth must be between M and D; because, fince the celestial Matter of this Vortex moves fomething fwifter than the Earth or Moon, which is carried only with it, unless the Point T were a little further distant from B than from D, the Presence of the Moon would hinder it from moving fo freely between B and T, as between T and D; and feeing the Place of the Earth in the Vortex is not determined, but by the equal Force of the circumambient celestial Matter, it is plain that it ought therefore to approach somewhat towards D. And for the same Reason, when the Moon shall be in C, the Center of the Earth ought to be between M and A, fo that always the Earth may recede a little from the Moon. Moreover, fince we supposed the Moon to be about B, not only the Space between B and T, but also that between T and D, thro' both which the celestial Matter flows, is made something narrower; hence it follows, that the celeftial

stial Matter floweth faster there, and therefore presseth more, both the Superficies of the Air at 6 and 8, and of the Water at 2 and 4, than if the Moon had not been in the Diameter of the Vortex BD. Now feeing the Air and Water are both Fluids, and eafily give way to the Pressure, they must be more depressed about F and H, than they would be if the Moon were not in this Diameter BD; and also more elevated towards G and E, where both their Superficies bulge or are prominent. And further, because the Part of the Earth at F, under B, where the Sea is now lowest, in fix Hours Time will be at G, under C, where it is now highest, and after other fix Hours in H, under D, and fo on: or rather, because the Moon is moving a little in the mean Time from B towards C, and so as to perform the whole Revolution ABCD in a Month, by which the part of the Earth that is now in F under the Moon's Body, will be in fix Hours, twelve Minutes Time, or thereabouts, a little further than G, in that Diameter of the Vortex, which is 90 Degr. distant from the Place into which the Moon in the mean Time hath moved; therefore the Water will in that Time increase and be highest at F, and in other six Hours, twelve Minutes, when the Moon is got beyond D, will settle and be lowest there, &c. Hence it is plain, that the Water of the Sea must constantly ebb and flow in the same Place, every twelve Hours, twenty four Minutes Time.

THIS is Des Cartes's Demonstration, which is very ingeniously contrived to account both for the Tides that happen when the Moon is in the Meridian of the Place, and those also that occur when she is in the opposite Point of the Meridian Circle

under the Horizon.

BUT according to what we observed in the ninth Proposition, there are several Impersections in this Demonstration. As first, it is a wonder that Des Cartes did not consider, that, according to his Demonstration, the Water ought to ebb at 2 and 4, when the Moon approaches the Meridian B: and, on the contrary, to flow, when the Earth or Moon (viz. either of them) is removed fix Hours from each other; but this is contrary to Experience, for when the Moon approaches the Meridian of any Place, the Waters flow in that Place, and ebb, back again, at it's departure. But both Des Cartes's Words and Figure show the contrary; so that to take away the Absurdity (and in Des Cartes's Method) let us suppose the Vortex of the Earth ABCD, and the Waters 1234, to be interspersed equally about the Center T without any Protuberance, and to revolve with the Earth and the celestial Matter between ABCD and 5678. Let us suppose again the Moon to happen into this Vortex at B, and therefore the Space T B to become narrower, and the Water at 2 to be pressed towards E by the celestial Matter squeezing thro' it.

THEN while the Water is expelled from 2 to E, I ask where the greatest swelling will be, whether in the Place E, which is distant a Quadrant from F (where the Moon is vertical), or in the Place next to F towards E? If you answer, the swelling is greatest about the former Place E, I deny it, because it is contrary to Experience; but Experience shews the latter to be true, and even Reason convinces us, that when the Moon is over the Place F, the Water will be forced from 2 towards 1, which happens because the greatest swelling is about 2, not about 1, for here it will be least; hence the Places to the westward have their Tides later, as we know by Experience. And Reason and the Laws of Hydrostatics require this.

For

For if Water be poured in at 2, that it may flow towards E, there will be the greatest quantity of Water at 2, and a little less in the next Place, but least of all at E; and the same Thing will happen if it be expelled or driven towards E. But by the Circumrotation of the Earth, E comes into the Place of F, where at length there will be the greatest Protuberance at E, and the Water will be repelled towards H.

THEREFORE Des Cartes's Figure and Demonstration is to be changed, that the swelling may arise somewhere about 2, viz. where the Moon is vertical. What more might be said here we refer

to our Treatise upon Des Cartes's Physics.

# PROPOSITION XII.

The general Motion of the Sea from East to West is stronger, and the Tides are higher at New and Full Moon, than at the Quadratures.

THE Truth of this Proposition appears from Experience. For People that use the Sea testify, that at New and Full Moon, the Face of the Ocean is constantly rough and troubled, but calm and quiet at the Quadratures. This is easily accounted for by the aforesaid Hypothesis; for when the Moon is at the New or Full, she is nearer the Earth than at any other Time of her Age, and is furthest distant in her Quadratures, as is shewn by Astronomers (g). But when the Moon is nearer the Earth, that is, when the Space BT is less, the celestial Matter being hindered, or obstructed, presses with greater force the Water from 2 towards 1. But happens otherwise in the Quadratures.

<sup>(</sup>g) This is falfe. See the Note (e) above.

YET in fome Places there are higher Tides at the Full Moon than at the New, which I cannot account for, unless they be the Effects of it's greater Light at that time. Nor can it be otherwise explained, why at the Full Moon Vegetables and Animals are impregnated with a greater quantity of Sea Moisture, than at the New, tho' even then the Tides are every whit as high. It is very wonderful what one Twist, a Dutchman, relates in his Description of India. He says, that in the Kingdom of Guzarat (where he lived many Years) their Oysters, and Crabs, and other Shell-Fish, are not so fat and juicy at the Full Moon as at the New, contrary to their Nature in all other Places. Nor is it less admirable, that on the Coast of the same Kingdom, near the Mouths of the River Indus, the Sea swells, and is troubled, at the New Moon, when not far from hence, viz. in the Sea of Calicut the greatest Rise of the Waters is at the Full. But it is requisite that we should have repeated Enquiries and Observations about these Matters, before we pretend to solve

### PROPOSITION XIII.

their Phænomena.

The Flux and Reflux of the Sea varies with the Seafons of the Year, and the Tides are observed to be kighest about the Equinoxes; i.e. at the Spring and Fall; but lowest at the Solstices.

DES Cartes pretends to account for this Phænomenon by his Hypothesis, but I cannot apprehend his Meaning by his Words, nor how it can be deduced from it (b). It is probable, that the Sun and the general Winds may contribute much

<sup>(</sup>b) See the true reason of this in Artic. 3. of Note (f) above.

CHAP. 14. of Universal Geography. 251

to raise these Tides, when, in the Equinoxes, the Sun is vertical to the Ocean in the middle of the Torrid Zone, and therefore may cause both the Wind and Water to rage, and the former to agitate the latter. The contrary of which may happen about the Solftices. Or we may say, that these extraordinary Tides then happen by the same Reason, and proceed from the same Cause that frequent Rains and Inundations proceed from in these Seasons.

### PROPOSITION XIV.

In some Parts of the Ocean, Bays, and Shores, the Tides ebb and flow very high; and in others but low: and in some few Places there are no sensible Tides at all.

THOSE Places have the greatest Tides; r. which are in the Torrid Zone between the Tropics, where the Moon, being almost constantly vertical, presses the Water with greater force; 2. those which lie directly East and West with their Collaterals; 3. those Bays that are long and narrow; 4. those Places where there are but sew Islands or Forelands.

THE Tides are therefore greater or less in a Place, according as it is situated or extended.

THE greatest known Tides are observed in the Bay of Guzarat, at one of the Mouths of the River Indus, and has struck many with Admiration. The Water there recedes from the Shore very quick, and leaves it uncovered for a great Space; so that this Bay is, not without Reason, thought to be the same into which Alexander the Great sailed, when he attempted to transport his Army by Sea into India, but was hindered, as it is reported, by the Sea which retired quick

from the Shore, and left all his Ships a-ground, fo that he could not proceed further, but thought that the Gods had there fixed Bounds to his Expedition. This Story is reported for a Truth by the Inhabitants of Cambaya. The Cause of this is the shallowness of the Chanel, which makes the Water in it's Ebbing leave fo much more Ground uncovered, tho' perhaps some other Cause may conspire with this.

AT the Town of Daman, not far from Surat in India, the Tide rifes and falls two Fathoms and a half, and the Sea recedes from the Shore half a German Mile.

IN the Bay of Cambaya the Tide flows five (or as fome fay feven) Fathoms high, which vio-Ient Flux causes many Ships to be lost by unexperienced Seamen; for at the Ebb, when the Water falls back, they are frequently split upon the Rocks.

UPON the Shores and Bays at the Magellanic Streights, there is no conftant Time observed between the Tides, which ebb and flow irregularly, fometimes in three Hours, and fometimes in twelve Hours; which variety is caused by the violent breaking of the Sea into these Streights, and the frequent Agitation of it by the Winds.

PRODIGIOUS high Tides are observed a-

bout Malacca, and in the Streights of Sunda.

IN the Arabian Gulph, or Red-Sea, the Tide of Ebb is fo great, that as fome of the Antients have writ, (quoted by Scaliger) Moses, and the Israelites, might, at low Water, have passed thro' it without a Miracle. But this is false, for it never ebbs fo much as to leave the Chanel dry.

IN Button's Bay, near Hudson's Streights, when Mr Thomas Button, an Englishman, wintered there in the Latitude of 57 Degr. North Latitude, he observed the Tide of Flood to rise fifteen Foot and above: and in the Latitude of 60 Degr. the Summer after, he found it to come up to the same Height; tho' in neither Hudson's nor James's Bay it rises much above two Foot.

THERE are prodigious high Tides upon the Coast of China, and about the Islands of Japan.

AT Panama, a Town on the Coast of America, the Pacific Sea flows very high, and immediately ebbs again; at the Full Moon the Agitation is fo great that it drives the Water into the Houses of the Town. All along this Shore the Tides of the great South Sea are strangely high; fo that in their Reflux they retreat two Miles of Ground, and in some Places the Water falls off out of Sight.

IN the Bay of Bengal, on the Shore of Siam, the

Tide rifes fifteen Foot.

BUT in the Mediterranean Sea, which flows from West to East thro' the Streights of Gibraltar, there is no fenfible Tide at all; because it's Entrance is situated opposite to that Point, to which the Ocean Sea in general flows. It may perhaps increase a little, but in the main it is not sensible, only in the Gulph of Venice there is a small Agitation perceived, by reason of the great length and narrowness of the Bay, which, in the broader Parts of the Mediterranean, is no were perceptible. Therefore the Flux and Reflux of the Sea was unknown to the Grecians, and also to the Romans in the Time of Scipio Africanus; and therefore when they found it in other Places, accounted it a Miracle; as appears from the forementioned Expedition of Alexander the Great, and the Wars of Scipio with Carthage; but in Cicero's Time this was well enough known to the Romans. A small Tide is observed at Marseilles in France, and an inconfiderable Rifing is perceived along the Coast of Barbary. IN 254

IN the Baltic Sea, and all over the northern, Ocean beyond England and Norway, the Tides are not in the least perceptible; nor in the northern Parts of the Pacific Ocean (i). The Reason is not well known, unless we fix it upon the great Distance these Seas are from the way of the Moon, and their being extended from West to East, and North-east, with the many Islands and Forelands, all which conspire to obstruct the Flux of the Tides in these Places. But this cannot be said of Hudson's Bay; which is properly extended from East to West, to receive the Flux of the Tides; and therefore it is no Wonder if they are much more remarkable here than in the Baltic, or in the northern Ocean.

## PROPOSITION XV.

The Flux of the Sea is forced by a strong Impulse; but the Reflux is the natural Motion of the Water.

THE Flux is caused by the Pressure of the Moon, or the celestial Matter, between it and the Sea, and continues no longer than the Cause forces it: but in the Ebb, the Sea only flows from a higher to a lower Place, which is the natural Motion of the Water.

(i) The Tides are very small in feveral Parts of the Northern Ocean, vet they may be felt in fome particular Places. Thus

on the Coast of Nova Zembla the Water was observed by Capt. Wood to rife eight Foot. See Note (a) on Chap. S. above.

#### LEMMA.

The Place of the Moon in the Zodiac being known, from an Ephemeris, or by Calculation, or Astronomical Observation, and also it's Latitude, and the Hour of the Day; to find, on the Terrestrial Globe, what Place the Moon will be vertical to at the given Hour, and to show all the Places that the Moon will pass over, one after another, that Day.

THIS Problem is of great Use for observing the Flux and Reflux of the Sea. You will find the Method of solving it in Chapter xxx. Proposition 14. where it is more commodiously explained. However the more knowing Reader may anticipate it here, or learn it aforehand from the Rules there delivered.

#### PROPOSITION XVI.

The Tides are highest in those Places over which the Moon is vertical, unless some of the Obstacles above-mentioned in Proposition 14 hinder; but the further any Place is from that, the less (cæteris paribus) is the Flux and Reslux.

BECAUSE those Places are more pressed, and the swelling of the Sea is greater, over which the Moon squeezeth the celestial Matter, whereby greater Tides are produced: but where the incumbent Matter is less squeezed, and other Causes conspire, the Alteration will be less.

#### PROPOSITION XVII.

The Altitude of the Tides are divers in the same Place at different Times, and they are high and low, according as the Moon is further from or nearer to the Zenith of the Place.

SINCE the Moon every Day changes her Place in the Ecliptic, she will be vertical now to one Place, and then to another, and confequently varies her Distance from the Zenith of any particular Place. Which being granted, it follows, as a Corollary of the last Proposition, that the Tides in any one Place are constantly altering, whether their Variation be fensible, or infensible.

### PROPOSITION XVIII.

The greatest swelling of the Ocean, or High-Water, ought to be in that Place when the Moon is in the Meridian Circle (above or below); but in divers Places it is High-Water when the Moon is otherwise posited.

SINCE the Moon, in the Meridian, is nearer any Place than when she is in the Horizon, (because the Hypotenuse of any right-angled Triangle is longer than the Perpendicular) it follows (by Proposition 16, of this Chapter) that then it ought to be High-Water in that Place (where she is full South). And when she is full North, or in the lower Part of the Meridian Circle, it ought to be also High-Water in the same Place, because, tho' she be not there, yet the opposite Part of the Vortex of the Earth is straitened, and hath the same Effect, as if the Body of the Moon itself were present.

BUT

BUT there are many Places and Shores where it is not High-Water precifely at the Time of the Moon's fouthing or northing in the Meridian Circle, (as the Philosophers of the former Age thought) but perhaps a little before, or after, the makes her appulse to the Meridian, viz. when she approacheth a Vortex fomething distant from it, East or West. Neither doth a full Tide always happen when the Moon is in the same Azimuth; but it is very often High-Water, especially at the New and Full Moon, a little before the constant Time, or before the Moon approaches that Azimuth. At London it is High-Tide when the Moon is three Hours from the Meridian, or South-West, and North-East (k). On the Shore of China, in the Harbour of Maccao, a Portuguese Sailor thus stated the Time of High-Water. The Elevation of the Pole, or the Latitude of the Place, is 22 degr. 20 min. In the Year 1584 on the nineteenth Day of Septemper it was Full Moon, and the same Day, it was High-Water half an Hour, or three quarters, past Eight in the Morning; so that the Moon was then three Hours and a quarter distant from the Meridian; hence the Azimuth, or Point fhe was then in, may be found by a Problem in Chapter xxx.

IN the Year 1585, February the third, which was also the third from the New Moon, it was observed to be High-Tide a little after twelve; and therefore at the New Moon, which was February the first, it was full Sea about forty Minutes as-

ter Ten.

HENCE the Azimuth the Moon was then in may be found.

<sup>(</sup>k) See the Note (m) below. VOL. I.

IN the Year 1585, February the fixteenth, it was observed to be High-Water, at Full Moon, almost at Noon, viz. at half an Hour past Eleven.

IN the Year 1585, June the fecond, which was the fourth Day after the New Moon, it was High-Tide exactly at twelve, therefore at the Conjunction it was High-Tide at nine in the Forenoon.

THE fame Sailor adds, that the Time of High and Low-Water doth not agree with the Time that is computed from the Motion of the Moon, except for five Days before and after the New Moon. But there is some Ambiguity in these Words, and others following, which we have therefore omitted. But the Caufe of this Variation is, that the Sea rifes nine Hours in the Port of Maccao, and ebbs only three, as is observed in the next Proposition.

HERE follow fome Observations made by a Dutch Sailor of the Time of High-Water, on the Days of the New and Full Moon, at different

Places.

AT twelve o'Clock (on the New and Full Moon Days) it is High-Water along the Shore of Flanders, at Enckbuysen in Holland, at Hoorn, at Emden in East Friesland, at the Mouth of the River Elbe, at the Mouth of the Eyder, at the Islands of Jutland, at Dover in England, &c.

AT forty five Minutes past twelve, at Flushing

in Zealand.

AT half an Hour past one, at the western Shore of the Isle of Wight, at Calais, at the Mouth of the River Thames in England, along the Shores of Zealand, at the Mouth of the River Schelde, in the Meuse, at [Gorcum].

AT three o'Clock, at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Dort, and Newcastle in England, before the Flemish Sand-Banks, at Armentier in Flanders, at the

Mouth

Mouth of the River Garonne, along the South Shore of England, on the Coast of France, Gascongne, Biscay, Gallicia, Portugal, and Spain; on the western

Shore of Ireland, all the way to Shetland.

AT a quarter before four in the Afternoon, at Roban in France, in the Maese, at Rochelle in France, in the River Garonne, in the Bays upon the Shore of Spain, Portugal, Gallicia, in the Bays on the Southern Shore of Bretagne in France, on the Shore of Gascoigne, on the western Shore of Ireland.

AT half an Hour past four, from the Texel to the fouthern Shore of Ireland.

AT a quarter past five, in all the Ports on the South of Ireland, at Plymouth in England, and at other fouthern Places between that and Wales.

AT fix o'Clock in the Morning and Evening, at Hamburgh in the Elbe, at Bremen, on the East fide of the Texel, at Antwerp, in the English Chanel as far as the Scilly Islands.

AT a quarter before feven in the Evening at Falmouth, and in Bristol Chanel, at St Nicolas and Podessamke, as far as Weymouth and Hartpool.

AT half an Hour past seven at the Road in the Texel, at Kilduyna, in the middle of the Chanel, beside Plymouth, and as far as the Foreland of the Lizard-Point.

AT a quarter past eight in the Evening, about the Isle of Wight, at the West side of the Flie Island.

AT nine o'Clock, at the Mouth of the River Eems in Friesland, on the East side of the Flie Island, along the Shores of Friesland, and on the eastern Shore of the Isle of Wight.

AT half an Hour past ten, at the Mouth of the River Thames, on the Shore of Normandy and

Picardy.

AT

AT a quarter past eleven, in the River Thames,

and other Places in England.

IT is very difficult to explain the Cause of these wonderful, and extraordinary Differences of the Tides in all Places, tho' it properly belongs to Naturalists, and Geographers, to do it. It is likely that the various windings of the Shores, and their different Situation to the Sea-ward, the Refistance of the Islands, the Concurrence of feveral Tides, the Distance of Places from the Moon's Way, the various Winds, chiefly those that are general and conftant, the Declivity and Shoalness of the Shores, and other things, very much contribute to this furprifing Diversity. For Example, at the Port of London the Tide rifes 'till the Moon comes to the South-West, when she hath South Latitude, and only then begins to ebb, not when the approaches the Meridian: for which we give this Reason, viz. that while the Moon is moving from the Meridian of London towards Brafil (or from Brafil towards London) the Water ought not to fettle, but still to rife, because the Shore of America repels the Water towards England, which is drawn thitherward by the Moon, fince there is no Passage for it to proceed any further. But it may be asked why, when the Moon hath North Latitude, it should happen to be High-Water before she approaches the Meridian of London, viz. when she is in the South-East Point? To which I answer, that when the Moon hath North Latitude she is much nearer England than when she hath South, and therefore raises up the Water fooner; and the Reafon why the Flux is not continued fo long as till the Moon approaches the Meridian is, because she impels the Ocean more towards the American Coast, and Hudson's Bay, where the greatest Floods are then observed.

A N D for this Reason it is High-Water along the Coasts of *China*, before the Appulse of the Moon to the Meridian, because the continual East Winds drive the Sea towards the West.

BUT all these Allegations are not sufficient to fatisfy me in these Matters, and therefore I would have the curious Naturalists examine them with greater Scrutiny. For to find the true Caufe, it is requifite, that we be furnished with accurate Observations how the Tides ebb and flow in different Places, and what Azimuth the Moon is in when it is High-Water in those Places; and how her Bearing varies according to her Place at the Change and Full; especially in those Places where the Moon is vertical, and those that bear from them directly East, West, North, and South (1). It is also to be diligently observed, what height the Tides flow at these times; when the Moon is in the North Part of her Orbit, and moves not over so much Sea, but over that vast Tract of Land which lies between China, and the western Shore of Africa. For fince she presses not the Water directly when she moves over these Mediterranean

(1) The following Directions are of excellent use for observing the Tides, given by Sir Robert Murray, in Philos. Trans. No 17.

1. Observe the Situation of the Place of Observation, viz. what Currents, Seas, Islands, Bays, Shores, Shelves, &c. are

near it.

2. Observe in what proportion the Increases of the Tides from the Neap to the Spring Tides, and their Decreases, and the Risings and Fallings of the Ebbs, happen to be in regard of one another.

3. Observe the Increase and Decrease of the Velocity of the Currents.

t Murray, in Philof. Trans.

4. Measure the Height of every utmost High-Water and Low-Water, from one Spring Place of Observation, viz. Tide to another.

5. Measure the exact Height of Spring Tides and Spring Ebbs.

6. Observe the Position and Strength of the Wind, the State of the Weather; the Height of the Barometer, &c.

7. Calculate the Moon's Age and Place in all Respects.

See Lowthorp's Abridgment of Philof. Transact. p. 260. Places,

Places, I suppose this will cause a fensible Variation of the Motion of the Water. Likewise these Phænomena are to be observed when the Moon is in the South Part of her Orbit, and moves over Brasil, or South America. For without a perfect Notion of these Occurrences, we shall scarce be able to find out the true Reason or Cause of the Tide.

# PROPOSITION XIX.

The Sea flows to most Shores in twelve Hours twelve Minutes, and ebbs back again in as many.

IN some few Places it takes more Time in flowing than in ebbing; and, on the contrary, in others it flows in less Time than it ebbs: yet so that the Time of the Flux and Reflux (or the Time between the two full Seas) make together twelve Hours, 248 Minutes, and two of these Times make twenty four Hours 483 Minutes, or almost twenty five Hours. So that High-Water happens every Day later by almost an Hour than the Day before, because the Moon comes later to the Vertex, or Meridian of any Place, by almost an Hour (fifty Minutes) every Day.

WE have fufficiently explained this Proposition in our Demonstration of the eleventh; tho' in that we accounted it to be full Sea, when the Moon is in the Meridian of any Place; but because, as we shewed in the last Proposition, it is found to be High-Water in feveral Places when the Moon is not in the Meridian, we do not, in this Proposition, reckon the forementioned Flours from the Time the Moon is in the Meridian of these Places, but from the Time she is found, by Experience, to be in that Vertex when it is high Water. Nevertheless this Period of the Flux and Reflux is not performed exactly in twelve Hours, twenty four Minutes, (or in twenty four Hours, fifty Minutes) but some Times fooner or later, because the Moon conflantly changing her Diftance from the Zenith, returns at unequal Times to the same Vertex; but this Difference is small.

THEREFORE tho' the Flux and Reflux together be performed, in all Places, in about twelve Hours, twenty four Minutes (when there are no Storms); yet in some, the Time is equally divided between the Flood and Ebb; and in others, the Time of flowing is more or less than that of ebbing.

THE Garonne, a River in France, is seven Hours in rifing, and but five in falling. And in the Port of Maccao, upon the Shore of China, the Tides flow nine Hours, and only ebb three, or

less if the East Winds blow.

ON the contrary, in the River Senegal, in Negroland, the Sea flows four Hours, and ebbs eight.

IT is hard to affign Reasons for this Difference. Some attribute it to the strong and swift Current of certain Rivers, or to their ordinary Flux. Thus the River Garonne resists the Influx of the Sea with it's strong Current and hinders it; but helps the Reflux, and hastens it. Others will have the Flux to be prolonged another Hour, because the return of the Flood from the northern Seas, hinders it's Egress at the Mouth of the Garonne, and rather forces it further up the River. But it is my Opinion, that the River pours itself into the Sea, to a considerable Distance, with a rapid Motion, which is obstructed in part by the Tide, and made to stand, some Time before the Moon forces the Sea up into the very Chanel.

THE Reason why the Sea flows only four Hours into the River Senegal, is either because S 4

it's Chanel is extended from West to East, or because the swiftness of the Stream, may hinder the Flux for two Hours. There may be perhaps other Causes which we are ignorant of, for want of Observations; for we are not certain whether it really lessens all the eight Hours, or only six, and is stagnant the other two, by Reason of the Equality of the Current and the Tide.

WE are also to consider that low Places have

apparently a longer Flux, and a shorter Ebb.

### PROPOSITION XX.

Whether it be Flood in any Place at the Instant the Moon is in the Horizon of that Place?

THEY commonly fay it is; tho' it be not true in those Places where it is full Sea when the Moon is in the Meridian. For when the Moon declines from the Equator fouthward, she approaches the Meridian in less than six Hours, and therefore the Flux must have begun when the Moon was depressed below the Horizon: on the contrary, when the Moon has a North Declination, the requires more than fix Hours to move from the Horizon to the Meridian, and therefore it is Flood when she is elevated above the Horizon. or is in the Horary Circle of the fixth Hour; and fo it is observed in most Places, tho' it be otherwise at London, as we observed above. It feems indeed reasonable that, tho' the Moon has a North Declination, the Flux should begin when she is horizontal, because she is then ninety Degrees distant from the Vertex of the Place, and therefore the Pressure of the Ocean ought first to touch here. But Observations are wanting to confirm this.

# PROPOSITION XXI.

Having the Time of High or Low-Water given, on the Day of the Change or Full, in any Place where the Sea ebbs and flows regularly, (viz. in twelve Hours, forty eight Minutes) to find, at any Age of the Moon, the Time of High and Low-Water (m).

WE

(m) The true Time of the Tides, at all Ages of the Moon is not well computed by Sea-Men and Aftronomers; most of them reckoning, that the Moon being upon a fet Point of the Compais, or fo many Hours past the Meridian, makes High-Tide in fuch and fuch a Point at all Times of the Moon. As for instance, a South-west Moon makes a full Tide at London, that is, when the Moon is three Hours past the Meridian. Now this is true indeed at the New and Full Moon, but not at any other Times of the Moon, which few take any notice of.

But observing more narrowly, I find that at London the Tides fall out at least two Points that is, an Hourand a half fooner in the quarters than in the New and Full Moon, and the true Time of the Tides is found to be fomewhat shorter and shorter from the New and Full Moon to the quarters, yet not in an equal manner, neither gradually decreasing from the New and Full Moon till the quarters; but rather that there was some little Difference of Alteration both at the New and

Full Moons, and also at the quarters, and that the greatest Difference fell out in the midst between them, agreeing very well to a circular Proportion after this manner.

1. Divide a Circle into 12 equal Parts, or Hours, according to the Moon's Motion, or Distance from the Sun, from the New Moon to the Full.

2. Let the Diameter of the Circle be divided into 90 Parts, or Minutes, that is, according to the Time of the Difference between the New or Full Moon, and the quarters, which is one Hour and a half.

3. Make perpendicular Lines cross the Diameter of the Circle

from Hour to Hour.

4. Reckon the Time of the Moon's coming to the South in the Circumference of the Circle, and observe the perpendicularLine that falls from that Point upon the Diameter; and the proportional Minute cut thereby, will shew how many Hours or Minutes are to be substracted from the Time of High Tides at the New and Full Moon, that so you may have the true Time of the Tides that present Day Example

WE observed before, that the Time of High and Low-water (if we reckon by the mean Motion of the Moon from the Sun) is every Day 483 Minutes, or more accurately  $48\frac{13}{10}$ ) and every half Day 243 Minutes later than the preceding.

IF therefore it be High-Water in any Place, on the Day of the New or Full Moon, at twelve o'Clock, it will be full Tide on the subsequent Days of the Lunation, as in the following Table:

Moon's Age	Hours.	Minutes.
I	XII.	48
2	I	37
3	2	27
4	3	16
4 5 6	4	5
	4	55
7 8	4 5 6	44
8	6	34
9	7 8	23
10	8	12
11	9	I
12	9	51
13	10	40
14	11	29
$14^{\frac{1}{2}}$	12	Midnight.
15	12	Noon.

THAT

Example. At London, on the Day of New and Full Moon, it is high Tide at three of the Clock, that is when the Moon is three Hours past the Meridian, and fo by the common Rule the Moon being about four Days old it will be South about three of the Clock, and it will be high Tide three Hours afterwards, that is at fix o'Clock. But now by this Rule, if you count this Time of the Moon's coming to the South in the Circumference, the perpendicular Line which comes from three to nine, cuts the Diameter at 45 Min. which shews that so much is to be abated from the Time of High-Tide in the New and

CHAP. 14. of Universal Geography. 267

THAT is, at the end of the first Day of the Moon's Age it is High-Water later by forty eight Minutes, &c.

BUT

Full Moon; fo that it is High Tide 45 Min. before fix; that is, at five Hours 15 Min. and not at fix, according to the common Rule.

The like you may do for any other Port, or Place, knowing the Time of High Water at the New and Full Moon in that Place: And you may do it the more readily, if you fet down the Time of High water at the New and Full Moon under the Diameter, as I have done for London where it is high Tide at three of the Clock: So when the Moon is fouth at three of the Clock or nine, the Perpendicular cuts the Diameter at two Hours 15 Min. which, added to the afore faid three or nine, gives the Time of High Water as above,

Thus you may cafily make a Table which by the Southing of the Moon shall readily tell you the Time of High Tide in any Place. The following is for London.

BUT for Practice, it is sufficient to add to the Time of High-Water at the New Moon.

For the first Day after the Change. Hours	03
For the fecond ——————	$1\frac{2}{3}$
For the third — — — —	$2\frac{1}{2}$
For the fourth — — — —	31
For the fifth ———————	4
For the fixth — — — —	5
For the feventh — — — —	5=
For the eighth — — — — —	61
For the ninth ——————	7 }
For the tenth — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	81
For the eleventh — — — — — —	9
For the twelfth — — — — —	93
For the thirteenth — — — —	101
For the fourteenth ———————	
For the fifteenth — — — — —	121

BUT this Calculation supposes the Motion of the Moon, from the Sun, to be equal, tho' it be not; for when she is in her Perigee she moves much swifter than when she is in her Apogee; and therefore in the former Case she prolongs the Time of the Tides, and in the later shortens them. Besides, some of the Lunar Months exceed thirty Days, and others are less than twenty nine, but the mean is twenty nine Days, twelve Hours, forty four Minutes.

BUT in those Places where it is High or Low-Water when the Moon approaches some certain

If you find the Difference not fo much between the Neap Tides, and the Spring Tides, the Diameter must be divided into fewer Parts. This is Mr Henry Philips's way, delivered in Philof. Trans. No 34. which tho' it be found Fault with by Mr.Flamstead (in the same Trans. No 143) yet by many it is faid to ansaver very well, and therefore ave have transcribed it.

Azimuth.

CHAP. 14. of Universal Geography. 269

Azimuth, tho' the Times may be computed by this Method, yet they are not so accurately found.

NEITHER do the Conjunctions of the Sun and Moon happen at the same Time every Change.

WE shall shew in Chapter xxx, how this may

be done by the terrestrial Globe.

W E may use a Method something like this, for those Places where the Time of the Flux is more or less than the Time of the Reslux; supposing the Difference be constant. But the Consideration of the Thing itself, and Experience, will sooner teach these Particulars than Discourse.

#### PROPOSITION XXII.

The Winds very often hinder, or promote, the Course of the Tides in all Places; and not only the Winds that blow in those Places, but even those in others may have the same Effect.

THE Truth of this Proposition is so clear, that it needs no Demonstration.

# PROPOSITION XXIII.

When any Part of the Ocean bath a proper, or particular, Motion, it is called a Current. Currents are various and directed towards different Parts of the Ocean, of which some are constant and others periodical. To enumerate the most famous constant ones.

1. THE most extraordinary Current of the Sea is that by which Part of the Atlantic or African Ocean moves about Guinea from Cape Verd towards the Curvature or Bay of Africa, which they call Fernando Poo, viz. from West to East, which is contrary to the general Motion.

And

And fuch is the Force of this Current, that when Ships approach too near the Shore it carries them violently toward that Bay, and deceives the Mariners in their Reckoning. Hence it comes to pass, that Ships which fail in two Days Time from the Shore of Mouree to Rio de Benin, [or Formosa which is one hundred Dutch Miles, require fometimes fix or feven Weeks to return from Benn to Mouree, unless they run out into the main Ocean, which is not eafily done, because the Current sets to the North-East, and runs fwiftly from the Island of St Thomas, towards the Bay of Fernando Poo, carrying in with it the Ships tho' they have a fair North-East Wind; and they can fcarcely get from the Shore, unless they be driven by these sudden Storms which break from the Clouds (called Travados) which feldom happen, and in some Months not at all. This Current destroyed several Ships before Mariners were well aware of it; as being either unadvisedly driven upon the Rocks and Shoals, and perished by Shipwreck, or detained in the Bay 'till they died with Hunger.

BUT this Current affects not the whole Ethiopic Ocean, only that part which is adjacent to the Shore of Guinea, to the end of the Bay, and to about one Degree of South Latitude. It is observed not to exceed the Distance of fourteen Miles from the Shore; therefore Ships are very careful left they should approach so near, when they fail along these Coasts; which would hinder their intended Course, and drive them to a Place

they would not care to visit.

IT is no easy thing to find out the Cause of this Current so near the Shore, when the main Ocean thereabouts moves the contrary Way from East to West. Two Things may be said for it:

I. THE

1. THE Ocean being repulsed by the American Shore moves slowly to the Eastward, but this Motion is not felt in the Main, because the other destroys it, and renders it less sensible, only near the Shore it runs swistly towards Fernando Poo, which, being stretched a pretty way into the Land is sittest to receive it; and the Reason why it is not felt in other Places upon the Shore of Africa (as at Congo) is, because the Rapidity of the Rivers breaks and obstructs it.

2. THERE may be fome subterraneous Receptacle in the Bay of Fernando Poo, into which the Sea perhaps may fall and draw the rest of the Ocean. But this may seem less probable; they that have opportunity of observing it better may

give better Reasons.

#### PROPOSITION XXIV.

[To point out the Place of the second perpetual Current].

THE Ocean moves fwiftly from about Sumatra into the Bay of Bengal, from South to North; fo that it is probable this Bay was made by the Rapidity of the Current; by which also perhaps the Peninsula of Malacca was separated from India. I do not know whether the Cause may be owing to the many Islands, and to Cape Mabo, upon the South Continent, whereby the Ocean in it's Passage westward may be diverted northwards: or there may be a subterraneous Receptacle in the Bay itself.

BE it how it will, I suppose the Current doth not set directly to the North, but rather to the North-West. This same Current is selt between Java and the South Continent, and therefore when the Dutch sail to the Indies, they first make to-

wards

wards the South Continent, and then direct their Course from South to North to come at Java.

# PROPOSITION XXV.

[To point out the Place of the third perpetual Current].

BETWEEN Madagastar and the Cape of Good-Hope, and more especially between Terra de Natal and the Cape, there is a strong Current which fets from North East to South-West (the fame way as the Shore runs) and is carried with such a rapid and extraordinary Motion, that Ships, with a brifk Wind, can hardly weather it, or fail against it, to Madagascar; on the contrary, they that fail out of the Chanel, between Madagascar and Africa, towards the Cape of Good-Hope, are carried thither without the Help of the Winds, purely by the Force of the Current. I suppose this to be the Cause, that the Indian Ocean, being forced towards the African Shore, and thereby diverted from it's direct Course, naturally flows towards the Cape of Good-Hope; where it finds a Paffage. For in the main Ocean, remote from the Shores, this Motion is not oblique but direct, from East to West.

# PROPOSITION XXVI.

[To point out the Place of the fourth perpetual Current].

IN the Pacific Ocean, along the Shores of Peru, and the rest of America, the Sea slows from South to North; which, no doubt, is owing to the constant South Winds which blow upon these Coasts; for neither these Winds, nor the Currents are observed out at Sea.

PRO-

#### PROPOSITION XXVII.

[To observe the Place of the fifth perpetual Current].

THIS is observed to flow from Cape St Augustin, in Brasil, along the Coast of America, among the Antilles in the Bay of Mexico, towards Florida, which is from South to North. For the Sea being driven by it's general Motion against the Shore of Brasil, is there repulsed, and carried northward, where the Chanel is broader and more open, which very likely causes this Current. The like Motion northwards is found at the Mouth of the Streights of Manilba, one of the Philippines. Likewise in Japan there is a very swift Current from the Port of Xibuxia towards Arimia.

#### PROPOSITION XXVIII.

[To shew the Place of the fixth perpetual Current].

THIS is in the Streights of La Maire, where the Sailors in the Naffau Ship observed the Current to set to the East; but this we cannot give so much Credit to, since La Maire himself writes to the contrary.

THERE are other Currents near the Shores of feveral Countries, but not yet accurately enough

observed or described.

### PROPOSITION XXIX.

To these perpetual Currents may be referred such as are made by large Rivers, where they exonerate themselves into the Sea.

AT the Shore of Loango, ten or twelve Dutch Miles from Congo in Africa, there is a strong Current from the Land towards the West; because of the many vast Rivers, (of which the Zaire is the greatest) which fall headlong into the Sea, and repel the Water; being helped by the general Motion. Therefore it requires fome Days before Ships can come up to these Shores, tho' but a Dutch Mile or two from them.

SO at the Island of Lamton, upon the Coast of China, the Sea moves from the Shore to the eastward, contrary to the general Motion, which is from the East to China. This Current is caused by the strong Efflux of the great River Thoncoan [or Ta] and is not observed out at Sea any further

than the Bashee Islands.

THUS far concerning the constant Currents; we shall add somewhat about those that are stated or anniversary.

# PROPOSITION XXX.

There is a great variety of shifting Currents which do not last, but return at certain Periods; and these do most of them depend upon, and follow, the anniversary Winds, or Monsoons, which by blowing in one Place may cause a Current in another.

AT Java, in the Streights of Sunda, when the Monsoons blow from the West, viz. in the Month of CHAP. 14. of Universal Geography.

275

of May, the Currents fet to the eastward, contrary

to the general Motion (n).

ALSO between the Island of Celebes and Madura, when the western Monsoons set, viz. in December, January, and February (or when the Winds blow from the North-West or between the North and West), the Currents set to the South-East, or between the South and East.

A T Ceylon from the middle of March to October the Currents fet to the fourthward, and in the other Part of the Year to the northward; because at this Time the southern Montoons set, and at the other

the northern.

BETWEEN Cochin-China and Malacca when the western Monsoons blow, viz. from April to August, the Currents set eastward, against the general Motion: but the rest of the Year set westward; the Monsoon conspiring with the general Motion. They run so strongly in these Seas, that unexperienced Sailors here suppose the Waves to beat against some Rocks.

SO for some Months after the fifteenth of February, the Currents set from the Maldivies towards India, on the East, against the general Motion of

the Sea.

ON the Shore of China and Cambodia, in the Months of October, November, and December, the Currents fet to the North-West, and from January to the South-West, when they run with such a swift Motion about the Shoals of Parcel, that it feems swifter than that of an Arrow.

(n) These Currents constantly follow the Winds and set to the same point the Monston or Trade Wind does, out at Sea. See an accurate History of these in Note (a) upon Prop. II. of

Chap, xxi. below; from whence may be formed a better Judgment of the Time of the fetting of these Currents than from what our Author delivers in this Proposition.

AT Pulo Condore upon the Coast of [Cambodia] tho' the Monfoons are shifting, yet the Currents fet strongly towards the East, even when they blow to a contrary Point.

ALONG the Coasts of the Bay of Bengal, as far as the Cape [Romania] at the extream Point of Malacca, the Current runs fouthward in November

and December.

WHEN the Monfoons blow from China to Malacca, the Sea runs swiftly from Pulo Cambi to Pulo Condore, on the Coast of Cambodia.

THERE are feveral other Examples to be found in Sailors Journals; tho' less accurately

given.

IN the Bay of Sans Bras, not far from the Cape of Good-Hope, there is a Current particularly remarkable, by which the Sea always runs from East to West to the Landward; and the more vehemently the more the Winds oppose it from the opposite Point. The Cause is no doubt owing to some adjacent Shore which is higher than this.

### PROPOSITION XXXI.

The Gyrations of the Sea, which we call Vortices, or Whirlpools, are of three Kinds.

SOME Whirlpools only turn the Water in a Round; others at Times absorb, and emit or vomit it up; and fome again fuck it in, but do not cast it out. And doubtless there is a fourth Kind fornewhere in the Chanel of the Sea, which may throw out Water but takes none in. I do not remember any fuch to be recorded by Authors; only upon the dry Land there are feveral observed. The Dutch Mariners call these Whirlpools Maelstroom.

THERE

THERE are but very few of these, at least, that have been taken Notice of.

BETWEEN Negropont and Greece there is a famous Whirlpool; called the Euripus, much talked of because of the fabulous Story of Aristotle's dying there (o). Scaliger endeavours to explain it thus. It is not much amifs (fays he) to suppose the Water, received into the Caverns, in the Cliffs of the Rocks below, iffueth from thence; for by the continual running in of the Water the little rocky Bays are filled, and being full, they emit what they received, thro' winding and fubterraneous Paffages; whose Capacity is such, that they pour out the Water for fo many Hours, whereby the Tides are now obstructed or repelled, and a little after forwarded or helped. But any one may perceive the infufficiency of this Caufe.

THE Maelstroom on the Coast of Norway, is the fwiftest and largest known Vortex; for it is faid to be thirteen Dutch Miles in Circuit; in the middle of which there is a Rock, which the People thereabouts call the Mouske. This Whirlpool, for fix Hours, fucks in whatever approaches it, or comes nigh it; not only Water, but Whales, loaded Ships, and other Things; and in as many Hours difgorges them all again, with a hideous Noise,

(o) There are on each fide the Euripus fix or feven Gulphs, wherein the Water shuts itself up to issue from thence as often as it enters there; and the Situation of thefe Gulphs perhaps contributes to this fudden Flux and Reflux, of which the Moon feems to be the principal Caufe.

There are twenty Days of each Moon in which the Course of the Euripus is regular, and ten in which it is irregular, viz. five Days before and after the New and Full Moon, in which there are nine or ten Changes of the Course of the Water every Day: and in each of these Changes the Water flows about a Foot, and ebbs back again. The Phænomenon is very wonderful, and it's Cause dubious. See Philos. Trans. Nº 71. Pag. 215.

Violence, and whirling round of the Water. The Caufe is latent.

BETWEEN Normandy in France, and England, there is a Whirlpit, towards which Ships are drawn with an increasible Celerity; but when they come near the middle of the Swallow, they are, with the fame Force, thrown out again.

# PROPOSITION XXXII.

The concussion or trembling of the Sea proceeds from a certain Spirit, which agitates not only the Earth, but also the very Water, and causes it to bubble.

IN the Bay of Bifeay, not far from Bayonne, there is a Place, called by the Inhabitants Cape-Breton, where the Sea fometimes grows fo turgid, without the leaft Wind, that the adjoining Shore feems to be in danger of being overflowed; and on a fudden grows calm again. There is the like raging in a Lake in Scotland, called Loch Loumond, which

is also caused by a subterraneous Spirit.

THE Portuguese, about the Year 1523, observed a Percussion of the Water in the Sea of Cambaya. In the greatest Calm, when there was not the least Breath of Wind (as Maffeus relates) the Waves on a fudden began to fwell up from the Bottom; and immediately the Ships feemed to nod as it were to one another; then their Joints cracked, and their Sides and Bottoms gave way. The Sailors, being struck with a fudden Fear, and thinking the Fleet had run upon Quickfands, were in the greatest Confusion: Some began to found with the Lead, others to pump, but they that were more wary bethought themselves of escaping, and laid hold of Barrels to swim upon: but it was afterwards found to be an Earthquake, which had put them into that Consternation at Sea.

PRQ-

#### PROPOSITION XXXIII.

Why the Pacific Sea is more still and calm, and without high Waves; and why it is easily agitated by the Winds.

THE Cause, no doubt, is, that it's Motion to the West, is not obstructed by the Lee-Shores; as it is in the Atlantic.





### CHAP. XV.

Of Lakes, Ponds, and Morasses or Bogs.

# PROPOSITION I.

Definition.

LAKE is a Collection of Waters contained in fome Cavity in an inland Place, of a large Extent, and every where furrounded with Land, having no Communication with the Ocean.

PONDS are little Lakes, which neither receive nor emit Rivers. Some Geographers, or learned Men, may perhaps define them otherwife, but it is no great Matter; we shall not stand to argue about Words: what we have done is to the best of our Judgment.

A Morafs, or Bog, is an inland flanding Water, having Earth raifed and appearing above it here and there, or even Earth, or Mud, mixed

with it.

#### PROPOSITION II.

Lakes are of four Kinds.

I. SOME neither receive nor fend forth Rivers; and if such are small, we call them Ponds; but if large, and of a vast Extent, they acquire the Name of Lakes. 2. Some again emit Rivers, but receive none. 3. Others receive Rivers, but have no Evacuation. 4. Others again, both receive and emit Rivers: of these some emit more Water than they receive, fome lefs, and others an Equality. Again fome fend out their Rivers almost in a streight Line with those they receive, others discharge them other Ways, or towards other Points. Likewise some receive more Rivers than they fend out, others not fo many, and fome an equal Number.

#### PROPOSITION III.

To explain the Origin, and Continuance, of those Lakes that neither receive nor emit Rivers.

SOME of these are large, others of a moderate bigness, and some but small. Of the two last some are always full of Water; others are dried up in Summer, and when it is constantly fair Weather; both these Sorts are called Ponds. As to those that are dried up, it is eafy to shew their Origin, viz. abundance of Rain, which gathers and stagnates in some Cavity, or depressed Place. For if any Pit be fituated in the middle of a descending Ground, the Rain-Water every way drains thither, and makes a Pond.

THERE are feveral fuch Ponds as these in India, made by the Industry of the Natives, of which some are a Mile, and some two in Circuit; they are furrounded with a stone-Wall, and are filled in the rainy Months, to supply the Inhabitants, in the dry Seasons, who live a great Way from Springs or Rivers.

IN like manner Pools or Ponds are made by the Inundation of the Sea, or the Overflowing of the

Rivers.

THUS the Nile and the Niger, the one watering Negroland, the other Egypt, when they overflow their Banks and are decreased, they leave their Water in several Ponds; which the Inhabitants sence and fortify to preserve the Water 'till such times as they have occasion for it. By this means in Muscovy, Finland, and Lapland, in the Spring, Summer, and Autumn, they have many little Lakes, which are generated partly by the Rains, and partly by the melting of the Ice and Snow.

BUT tho' fome of these Ponds may happen to be dried up in Summer, or when it hath not rained for a long Time; yet we are not thence to conclude, that they are wholly supplied with Rain-Water; for they may be dried up, tho' there are Sources, or Springs, in the Bottom, which perhaps, are so little that the Heat of the Sun, in Summer, dis-

fipates the Water, and turns it into Vapour.

AS to those that admit no Rivers, and yet are not dried up, they may wholly proceed from Rain if their Chanels are deep and capacious, and in which fo much Rain-Water may be contained, that the Heat of the Sun cannot confume the whole before more Rain fall to replenish them; tho' it is very likely, that many of these are supplied by Sources under Ground, which continually emit as much Water as is exhaled; especially those Lakes that are found upon the Summits of Mountains, as upon Brulterus, Cenis, &c. Some of them have perhaps been left, at first, by an Inundation, and are continually supplied and kept up by Rain-Water: And we need not doubt but that those Salt-Water Lakes, or Ponds, that are tound near the Sea, were made at first by the Inundation, or Immission, of the Sea-Water, some way or other; as the Lake of Harlem, and others in Holland. There are also several salt Lakes in Peru.

THERE is but a fmall number of these Lakes to be found. Some little ones are observed in Muscovy and Finland, the Lake Locajda in [Egirus,] the Lake Busaranda, in Amasia; one in Carniola, called the Zirchnitzer Sea; a round one in China; another called Hila in Cochin-China; one in Zanbaga in Africa; two in Mexico, in America, the one of them feven Leagues long, and the other near as big. All these are but small ones, except that in

China, which is of a moderate Bigness.

BUT the only one great Lake in the whole Earth of this fort is the Lake Parime in America, lying directly under the Equator. It is in length from East to West, about three hundred and five German Miles, and, in the broadest Place, one hundred Miles over, or thereabouts; fo that it may be compared with, if it do not exceed, any Lake in the World for magnitude; yet it neither receives, nor emits any Rivers. It may reafonably be doubted how this Lake was produced, whether by fome former Inundation of the Ocean, or by fubterraneous Springs and Sources? And whether it is fed and kept up by Rain-Water, or the like? It feems probable that there are Springs in the Bottom which fupply it with as much Water as is daily evaporated by the Heat of the Sun. For Lakes feem to have the fame Origin as Rivers, only they differ in the Situation of their Springs, and the quantity of their springing Water. For if a Spring be furrounded with rifing Ground, and run into a deep and broad Chanel, and also send forth but a small quantity of Water, it doth not run, but is evaporated as fast as it springs. There is no Difference therefore, in the main, between Springs, Lakes, and Rivers, only in fome Circumstances; and there are found several Springs which do not emit Water; but fuch are more properly called Wells.

### PROPOSITION IV.

To explain the Origin and Supply of such Lakes as emit Rivers but receive none.

THERE is an infinite Number of these Lakes, and very many Rivers flow from fuch, as out of Chterns; especially those that have their Rise in Muscov, Finland, Lapland, &c. where their Springs being finated low in the middle of a hollow Place, first fill the Cavity and make it a Lake, which being not capacious enough to hold all the Water, it overflows the adjacent Places and forms a River. And we need not doubt but fuch Lakes have their Rife and Maintenance from Springs at the Bottom, whether they be real Fountains, or apparent ones, viz. Water brought thither by subterraneous Pasfages from fome other Places; which last is more likely in some Lakes that immediately produce vast Rivers.

OF fuch finall Lakes as these there are, as I faid before, a great Number; as the Wolga at the Head of the River Wolga; the Lake Odium, at the Head of the Tanais; the Adac, from whence one of the Branches of the River Tigris flows; the Ozero [or White Lake] in Muscovy, that gives Source to the River Shacksna, which is poured into the Wolga, and many more little ones; we shall here only reckon fome of the larger fort that are more remarkable.

1. THE great Lake Chaamay in the Latitude of thirty one Degrees North, not far from India, to the eastward of the River Ganges. Out of this Lake flow four very large Rivers, which water and tertilize the Countries of Siam, Pegu, &c. viz. the Menan, the Asa, the Caipoumo, and the Laquia. Some Some Maps exhibit a fmall River that runs into this Lake.

2. THE Lake [Singbay] upon the East Border of China, fends out a great River [fouthward,] which

being joined to another enters China.

3. THE Lake Titicaca, in [Los Charcas] a Province in South America, is eighty Leagues in Circuit, and emits a large River, which is terminated in another fmall Lake, and is no more feen. There are feveral Towns and Villages difcovered about this Lake.

4. THE Lake Nicaragua, in a Province of the same Name, in America, is only four German Miles from the Pacific, or South, Sea, and above one hundred from the Atlantic, into which it is discharged at broad Flood-Gates.

5. THE Lake Frontena, in Canada, out of

which issues the River of St Lawrence.

6. THE Lake Annibi, in Afia, in the Latitude of fixty one Degrees.

#### PROPOSITION V.

To explain the Rife and Maintenance of those Lakes which receive Rivers, but emit none

IT is manifest that these Lakes were at first formed, and are still supplied and fed by the Rivers which they receive, or which difburden themselves into them. For when Rivers in their Course meet with a broad Plat of low Ground, they are there collected, and form a Lake; which (if the Soil be light, and porous to transmit the Water to the adjacent Fields, or if there be a subterraneous Receptacle, or, which is most likely, if the Water work it's way under Ground) never overflows but lofes, infenfibly, one way or another, as much Water as it receives.

THERE are not many of these Lakes taken Notice of.

- 1. IN the foregoing Proposition we observed that the Lake [Titicaca] discharges a River into a fmaller called Paria, which therefore may be referred to this Class, viz. to such as receive Rivers but emit none.
- 2. THE Lake Asphaltites, which is also called the Dead Sea, receives the River Fordan, but emits none. It's length, from North to South, is feventy German Miles, and it's breadth five, as fome make it.

3. THERE is one in the leffer Afia.

4. THERE is a small one in Macedonia, called Janna, which receives two little Rivers.

5. THE Lake of Geneva.

- 6. ONE in Persia near Calgistan.7. THE Lake Soran, in Muscovy, receives two fmall Rivers.
- 8. THE River Ghir, in Africa, is reported, by Leo Africanus, to lose itself in a Lake, and fome Maps fo represent it; but others join it to Nubia.

#### PROPOSITION VI.

To explain the Origin of those Lakes that both receive and emit Rivers.

THEY are of three kinds, as was faid before in Proposition 2. and either emit more Water than they receive, or an equal quantity, or lefs. If they emit more, it is evident they have fome hidden Springs in the Bottom: If lefs, the Earth is either fpongy, or there are fubterraneous Aqueducts, whereby the Water is conveyed under Ground: If an equal quantity, it is a Sign that there are neither Springs nor Swallows at the Bottom. Their Origins therefore are partly explained in Proposition 4, that is, are owing to a low Ground where there happens to be Springs, and into which

Plenty of Rain-Water is drained.

SUCH as are generated by the Influx of one River, and afford a Paffage for it in at one Side, and out at another, are found in many Places. Thus the Niger makes three Lakes in it's Courfe, and runs upon the Side of another. The Nile makes feveral more Lakes than are shewed in our common Maps. The River Duina at leasts runs thro' fix, or feven, Lakes. And there are fome Rivers in Muscovy and Finland, that make, as may be feen in our large Maps, at least sixteen Lakes before they exonerate themselves into the Sea. We fhall only here enumerate fuch as produce other Rivers than those they receive.

1. THE Zaire, a Lake, or Morafs, in the Foreland of Africa, lies between the fecond and ninth Degree of South Latitude, and therefore is about one hundred and five German Miles long. In the middle of it there is an Island (besides several fmall ones) fo large and populous, that the Inhabitants can raise an Army of Thirty thousand Men. This Island almost divides the Lake into two Parts, which have each a peculiar Name; that to the fouthward is called Zambre. Out of this Lake flow three large Rivers, the Nile, for rather the Zeebe] the Coanza, and the Zaire (a). There are fome small Rivers that run into it:

<sup>(</sup>a) 'Our Author, according to the Opinion of the Geo-

<sup>&#</sup>x27; graphers of his Time, maketh the Nile to flow out of this

<sup>.</sup> Lake; but here (and in other

<sup>6</sup> Places) we have taken the Li-

<sup>6</sup> berty to alter the Text (tho' as little as possible) that the

Description may be more a-

<sup>&#</sup>x27; grecable to the modern Dif-' coveries of the Portuguese Te-

<sup>&#</sup>x27; fuits. A more just and modern account of the Rife and

<sup>&#</sup>x27; Course of the Nile is given in the Note (g) upon Prop. 20.

<sup>·</sup> Chap. xvi.

but these do not seem able to supply even the Lake itself with Water, and therefore doubtless there are Springs at the Bottom; tho' the Inundation of the Rivers is owing to the great quantities of Rain that fall in the wet Seafons.

2. THE Lake Zaflan, not far from Zaire, lies between the third and ninth Degree of South Latitude; and therefore is about ninety German Miles in length. It receives and emits fome fmall

Rivers.

3. THE Lake Zachaf, not far from Zaire, towards the Cape of Good-Hope, emits a River, which being joined to others, is called St Esprit, or Delagoa.

4. THE Lake Aguilunda receives a Branch of the Zaire, and pours many Rivers into the King-

dom of Congo.

5. THE Lake Onega, in Finland, lies between fixty two and fixty four Degrees of Latitude, and is about twenty five German Miles long, but scarce half fo broad. It receives feveral confiderable Rivers from other small Lakes, and discharges one, called the Sueri, into the Lake Ladoga.

6. THE Lake Ladoga is about thirty German Miles long, and fifteen broad; it receives the River Sueri, out of the Lake Onega, and other leffer ones from other Places; also a considerable one from the famous Lake Ilmen in Muscovy. It discharges one

River into the Gulph of Finland.

7. [THE White Lake] or Ozero, receives some small Rivers, and discharges the River Shacksna

which falls into the Wolga.

8. THE Lake or Morafs called [Enare Trefk] in Lapland, is about forty German Miles long, and fifteen broad. It receives the River Avila, and fends one called [Paefreka] into the Sea of Lapland.

9. THE Lake Ula in [Finland] is thirty German Miles long, and half as broad. It hath an

Island

CHAP. 15. of Universal Geography. 289

Island in the middle like the Zaire, and receives a River which passeth thro' several Lakes, and discharges a large one into the Bothnic Bay. There are several other Lakes in Muscovy, Finland, and Norway.

10. IN China there are four remarkable Lakes that receive Rivers, and discharge others, various

Ways.

11. IN Brafil there is a great Lake, with many Islands in it, called Xarryes, which discharges the Rio de la Plata, and the River Miary.

# PROPOSITION VII.

Most Lakes are filled with fresh Water, only a sew have salt or Sea-Water in them.

THOSE that are produced by Rain or Rivers, or fuch as are remote from the Sea, and are fed by their own proper Springs, for the most part contain fweet Water: but fuch as were formed by the Inundation of the Sea, or are supplied with Sea-Water, by fome subterraneous Meatus, or have falt Springs at the Bottom, produce falt Water. Thus the Lake of Harlem, and others in Holland, are falt; and taste like Sea-Water. There is a falt Lake also in Madagascar, and another in Peru; there is one in Cuba, about two Leagues in Circuit, fituated not far from the Sea, which tho' it receives some fresh Water Rivers, and breeds Fish and Tortoises, yet is falt. The Lake Asphaltites, tho' it swallows the sweet Water of the River Jordan, yet is not sweet itself, but exhales such a poisonous and stinking Vapour that the Fields thereabouts, for half a Mile round, are rendered barren.

#### PROPOSITION VIII.

To determine whether the Caspian Sea be a Lake or a Bay of the Ocean.

SOME will have it to be properly called a Sea; as a Sea, properly speaking, is an extended Part of the Ocean, or is joined to it by a continued Tract of Waters. But they will have it to be joined to the Ocean by fome fubterraneous Intercourse. Some indeed of the Antients wrote, that it was joined by an open Streight, to the Indian Ocean; others, to the northern Ocean; but both were deceived, as we are well affured by Experience. Whether there be subterraneous Intercourses we do not know; only there feem to be fuch, because fo many and fo large Rivers exonerate themselves into it, and are constantly pouring in their Waters, where-by, in process of Time, the Chanel would be filled and run over, unless there were subterraneous Fiffures and Meatus's, thro' which it might evacuate it's superfluous Waters into the Ocean (b). But others think these Waters are distributed among the adjacent Mountains, and supply them with that vast number of Springs which is observed hereabouts. Scaliger and others were of Opinion, that this Caspian Sea runs under Ground into the Euxine Sea, but he gives no Reason for it; this may be faid, that the Euxine Sea is continually difgorging a large quantity of Water thro' the Bosphorus, and some think this is more Water than the Rivers pour into it; therefore it may perhaps receive it

flowing into it; is discussed in the Note (k) upon Prop. xiv. Chap. xiii. which fee.

<sup>(</sup>b) By what means the Caspian Sea (and all others) lose as much Water daily, as they receive from the many Rivers

CHAP. 15. of Universal Geography. 291

from the Caspian Sea. It seems to me to have no Communication any way with the Ocean, and therefore ought rather to be called a Lake, than a Sea. How it came at first is another Question. Some avouch that there are found feveral Mountains of Salt in the Bottom, whereby it hath acquired fuch a Degree of Saltness; and that it is replenished by the many Rivers that exonerate themselves into it. But it seems more feasible, (tho' these Rivers may contribute to it's Repletion) that this Sea hath, a great many Ages ago, been joined to the Ocean, and that it's Streights, by some means or other, were filled up and stopped, perhaps by interjacent Islands which gained upon the Shores, in a manner which we shall explain hereafter. And very likely, by the same Cause, the Euxine Sea may, some time or other, become a Lake; the Bosphorus being filled up or obstructed.

# PROPOSITION IX.

To make a Lake in any Place, if it be possible.

THIS may be done if there be a River near, or a Spring upon the Place, and if the Place itself be depressed; tho' small Lakes may be made upon the very tops of the Mountains. First the Place is to be hollowed, and dug to fuch a Depth and Extent as we defire, and the Sides are to be fortify'd with Wood-Work, if we see occasion. Then a Chanel is to be made, by which the River is to be let in; but if there be a Spring upon the spot, there is no occasion for such a Chanel.

# PROPOSITION X.

#### To drain a Lake.

THIS may be done two Ways; 1. If the bottom of the Lake be a little higher, or almost of the same Altitude with the adjacent Places, dig a Chanel, and let out the Water; and by throwing in Heaps of Earth, together with the Heat of the

Sun, it will in a short time be left dry.

2. IF the bottom of the Lake be lower than the adjacent Ground, it is to be first surrounded with a Ditch, leaving here and there some Canals, or Apertures, in it; to these apply Water-Engines and work out the Water; then cover the Ground with Dung, and sow in it such Seeds as are of a quick Growth, viz. Mustard-seed, Coleworts, and the like. The Dutch are very expert at draining Lakes by this Method; and often convert them into fruitful Meadow-Ground. At this time they are consulting how to drain the Lake of Harlem, and I do not doubt but it will be, some time or other, attempted; because this Lake covers much Ground which by draining would be of great Use to the Inhabitants.

# PROPOSITION XI.

Morasses, or Leaches, are of two sorts; some are ouzy and consist of Earth and Water mixed together, so as not to bear the Footsteps of Men: others are Ponds, or scanty Collections of Water, interspersed here and there with small Spots of Land.

THOSE of the former kind neither receive nor emit Rivers, we call them Sloughs or Bogs; there are many in Holland. In Brabant there is a large

CHAP. 15. of Universal Geography. 293

large one called *Peel-mar/h*. There are also several in Westphalia of both Sorts. Those of the later kind are chiefly found at the Heads of Rivers, whence some call these Heads Morasses; as the Morasses of Tanais in Muscovy, and of the Nile. There are feveral of these in the Province of Savolax in Finland, which cover vast Tracts of Ground; also those [called Enare-Tresk] in Lapland; the Marshes of Chelours in Africa, the Morasses thro' which the Euphrates runs in Chaldaa, &c. such as these are also found in Woods and heathy Defarts, and are made by the Rain-water gathered into hollow Places, whereby the Earth is foaked and moistened, and the Rays of the Sun are hindered from drying it up, by the Leaves of the Trees and the Heath. These are found chiefly in Germany and Muscouv.

THE narrower small Lakes, like the larger Sort, do some of them both receive and emit Rivers; some only receive, others only emit, and the rest

neither receive nor emit any.

THE first fort are formed and fed, partly by Springs under Ground, and partly by Rain water which stagnates for want of a Chanel to carry it off. Of this fort there are many in *Muscovy* and *Finland*. The second fort are generated from small Springs, and are fed by them and Rain-water.

ARISTOTLE calls the Sea of Mxotis a

Lake, which is truly fo.

# PROPOSITION XII.

Bogs contain a sulphureous, bituminous, and sat, Earth.

THIS is apparent from the black Colour of the Turf that is got out of them, which easily takes fire, (as in *Holland* and other Places) by reason this sort of Matter is contained both in the Rain U 2 and

294 The Absolute Part SECT. IV.

and in the Ground, where these Lakes are situated. But all Bogs have not that fort of Earth: and where the Ground is hard and rocky we seldom find any Lakes; and therefore most part of them contain a soft spongy and sulphureous fort of Earth.

## PROPOSITION XIII.

To drain, or dry up, a Beg.

THO' fome Bogs are of a great Depth, yet no more is required than to drain them to a certain level, which may be done feveral ways; 1. By making a Chanel to carry off the Water. 2. By throwing in plenty of dry Earth, when they are almost dried up by the Heat of the Sun. 3. By fetting their Surfaces on Fire. 4. By turning the Water that feeds them, another way.





#### CHAP. XVI.

# Of RIVERS in general. PROPOSITION I.

This Proposition contains some necessary Desinitions.

thro' a long narrow Chanel, from one part of the Earth to another. The Chanel is a Cavity, or hollow Place, made lower than the Banks, for the Water to run in.

2. A Brook is a little River, which is neither broad nor deep enough to carry a small Ship of Burden. A Navigable River is capable of carrying all forts of Ships, great and small; but these and the other fort are generally called great and small Rivers, according as they are in bigness. A Torrent is a violent Flux of Water from the top of a Mountain.

3. A Confluence, Concurrence, or Conflux, is a

Place where two Rivers meet.

4. BRANCHES of Rivers are the Brooks that run into them, and mix with them; or when a River is divided and runs in two Chanels, they are called it's Arms or Branches. Where the River is thus divided, it is called the Place of Parting or Divarication.

5. A

5. A Spring is the Place where running Water fprings out of the Ground. A Well is where the Water rifes and runs not forward, but is kept upon the Spot.

# PROPOSITION II.

Torrents and Brooks are sometimes generated from Plenty of Rain and melted Snow.

IN the elevated or mountainous Parts of the Earth, there are found many Receptacles, small Lakes, and Ponds. And when the Rain is poured into these, or the melted Snow, in such Quantity, that they are not large enough to contain it, they overflow and discharge the superfluous Water into the under-land Places. This being done every Year, the Water in time makes itself a Chanel (tho' it fometimes flows without any certain Chanel). Thus a great many Torrents and Brooks, being fed only by Rain, or Snow melted from off the Mountains, before they have run their Course, become moderate Rivers; especially if they proceed from a long Range of Mountains; as those in the Foreland of Africa, India, Peru, Sumatra, &c. And what is remarkable, fuch Torrents flow in the Day-time only.

# PROPOSITION III.

Most Rivers have their Rise from Springs.

THE great as well as the middle fized Rivers, proceed either from a Confluence or Collection of Brooks and Rivulets, or flow from Lakes and Moraffes. But no River of confiderable Magnitude (such as the *Elbe*, the *Rhine*, &c.) flows from one Spring or one Lake, but is augmented by the accession

CHAP. 16. of Universal Geography.

cession of others, slowing from other Fountains and Lakes. The Wolga or Rha receives above two hundred Rivers and Brooks, before it exonerates itself into the Caspian Sea; and the Danube receives

no less, before it enters the Euxine Sea.

AND tho' Pliny and Cardan tell us, that no Rivers flow into the Nile, yet Experience shews the contrary; as they that have travelled into Abyssinia assure us.

THIS Proposition may be proved by innume-

rable Examples.

THE Springs of Rivers are fome of them found on the tops of Mountains, and fome on the Planes; and those Rivers that proceed from Lakes, have their Fountains (as was faid in the last Chapter) at the bottom, or in the Chanel, of those Lakes that produce them, which like Cisterns contain the effusion of Water, 'till in a greater Quantity it be poured into it's proper Chanel. Hence some Fountains are covered with Earth or Water, and others are open.

THE Springs of the Rivulets which begin the *Tanias* and the *Elbe*, are on Planes, to which others are afterwards joined. We might here add feveral

Examples, but these are sufficient.

CÂRDAN is of Opinion, that these Fountains do not flow immediately from the Plane itself, but are conveyed by subterraneous Aqueducts from the adjacent Mountains; however, I believe they first make a Lake or a Morass; for the Tanais does not seem to flow immediately from a Spring, but from a Morass or shallow Lake.

THE Springs of most Rivers are upon Mountains, as those of the Rbine, the Po, the Danube,

the Niger, &c.

SEVERAL flow from Lakes, as the Nile, the Wolga, and the great River of St Lawrence in Canada.

A great River may happen to flow from one Spring, if the Spring itself be situated high (as most are) and a great part of the Chanel low, or but a little higher than it's mouth; so that the Water flowing with a swift Course at first, and by degrees slower, is increased in the Chanel and becomes a large River, because it discharges not so much Water at it's mouth, as it received from it's Spring when it first began to flow.

#### PROPOSITION IV.

Rivers are much augmented by frequent Rains or melted Snow, and at particular Times of the Year.

IN the Country of Peru and Chili there are some Rivers fo small, that they do not flow in the Nighttime, but only in the Day; because they are fed by the Snow upon the Mountains of the Andes, which is then melted by the Heat of the Sun. There are also several Rivers upon both sides of the extream Parts of Africa, as in Congo, Angola, &c. which are greater by Day than by Night. The like are found both in Malabar and Cormandel in India. The Rivers also in these Places are almost dried up in Summer, but swell and overflow their Banks in Winter, or the wet Seasons. Thus the Wolga in May and June is filled with Water, and overflows it's Shelves and Islands; which at any other time of the Year is fo shallow, that it scarcely affords a Paffage for loaded Ships. For the Snows being melted at this time of the Year, on the Mountains, from whence the Rivulets (being more than an hundred) flow into the Wolga, cause this Inundation. The Nile, the Ganges, the Indus, &c. are fo much swelled with Rain, or melted Snow, that, in like manner, they overflow their Banks. But these Deluges happen at divers times of the Year,

Year, because they proceed from various Causes and different Places. Those that are swelled with Rains, are highest in Winter; because these are then more frequent than at other times of the Year; but if they proceed from Snow, which in some Places is melted in the Spring, in others in Summer, or between both; the Deluges of the Rivers happen accordingly, viz. in the Spring, Summer. &c. or at any time when the Snow is melted upon the Banks of the Rivulets that form these Rivers. Moreover fome Rivers, especially the large ones. flow from Places at a great Distance, where it is Summer at the fame time it is Winter in the Places where they pass through; and for this Cause they overflow their Banks at different times of the Year. But most of them cause an Inundation in the Spring, because the Snow is then melted in most Places. We shall explain the Cause of their different Properties in the particular Description of each River.

WE shall also in the next Chapter treat of that remarkable Spring in Japan, which only flows for two Hours every Day.

# PROPOSITION V.

To explain the Origin of Springs (a).

THIS is easier to conceive than when it is proposed thus; From whence are Rivers generated?

For

(a) Since by Dr Halley's Calculation it appears, that the Vapours which are drawn up from the Sea exceed almost three times the Quantity of Water discharged into it by Rivers, [as was shewn in the Note (k) upon Prop. xiv. Chap. xiii.] it will

be no hard matter, feeing there is such an overplus of Water, to find enough from thence to supply Fountains, according to the Opinion of the fame learned Gentleman.

For these Vapours being carried every way by the Wind, ne-

ceffarily

For when we see such great Rivers as the Rhine, the Elbe, &c. we more admire whence they proceed

cessarily meet with the high Ridges of Mountains that are difperfed over various Tracts of the Earth: each of which far furpasses the usual Height to which the Aqueous Vapours of themfelves afcend, and on the Tops of which the Air is fo cold. and rarified, as to retain but a finall part of those Vapours that shall be brought thither by the Winds. The Vapours meeting with these Ridges of Mountains are there compelled by the Stream of the Air to mount up with it to their Tops, where meeting with more rarified Air, they naturally fall down in Drops, pervading the Crannies and Fissures of the Earth, and gleeting into the Caverns of the Hills, the Water thereof gathers into the Basons of Stone, or Clay, it finds, which being once filled, all the overplus of Water runs over, and, where it can find a Passage, breaks out at the Sides of the Hills, and forms Fountains; many of thefe, running down the Vallies, or Guts, between the Ridges of the Hills, and coming to unite, from Rivulets or Brooks; many of these again being united into one common Chanel, form vast large Rivers, as the Rhine, or the Danube.

This Theory of the Cause of Springs the fame excellent Perion proves by Experience. For he fays, that when he was in the Island of St Helena, taking Astronomical Observations in the Night-Time, on the Top of

the Hillsabout 800 Yards above the Sea, he found fuch a Condenfation of the Vapours, that in 7 or 8 Min. Time, tho' there was a clear Sky, the Glasses of the Telescopes he used were covered with little Drops, and the Paper on which he wrote his Observations would immediately be fo wet with the Dew that it would not bear Ink.

This Hypothesis he thinks more reasonable than that of those who derive all Springs from the Rain-Waters, which yet are perpetual and without Diminution, even when no Rain falls for a long Space of Time: Or than that which derives them from a Filtration or Percolation of the Sea Waters, thro' certain imaginary Tubes or Passages within the Earth, wherein they lofe their Saltnefs. This Opinion labours under this principal Abfurdity, that the greatest Rivers have their most copious Fountains farthest from the Sea, and where fo great quantities of fresh Water cannot reasonably be derived any other way than in Vapour. See Philof. Tranf. Nº 192. Pag. 468.

Notwithstanding it is very probable that all Fountains have not the same Origin; but that fome proceed from Rain penetrating the Fissures of the Earth, and flowly gleeting thro' the Interflices to the Orifices of Springs; and others, especially those that are falt, and placed near the Sea Shore, take their Rife from the

Sea

because of the Quantity of their Water, than when we look upon fmall Brooks. But we have shewed in the two last Propositions, that Rivers proceed partly from Rain and melted Snow, and partly from Lakes and Concurrences of Brooks and Rivulets; and therefore we do not enquire fo much here about the Sources of Rivers, as about the Origin and Permanency of Springs.

THE Opinions of Naturalists and Geographers

are various about this Matter.

1. SOME think that all Rivers and Springs receive their Water from Rain, or melted Snow; and this they bring for a Reason, that Rain and melted Snow sometimes augment Rivers to such a degree, that they overflow their Banks, and lay whole Countries under Water: But in the Summer Seafon, when no Rain has fallen for a long Time,

Sea Water percolating thro' the Sands; but the greatest part of Fountains, especially fuch as break from the fides of high Hills, derive their Waters from Vapours, as was faid above.

The learned Dr Wood avard, in his Natural History of the Earth, explains the Origin of Fountains otherwise. He imagines, that there is a great Abyss, or Promptuary, of Waters, inclosed in the Bowels of the Earth, which, communicating with that of the Ocean, is continually exhaled into Vapours, by the Force of a fubterraneous Heat which he proves by many Arguments to be in the interior Parts of the Earth; and that as these make their way upwards, they pervade the Fissures, and Intervals of the Strata of the Earth, permeating also the very Interstices of the particles of fand, earth and

Stone, 'till they come near the Superficies of the Earth, where they are condenfed with cold, and come together by Drops, which, being collected, break out at some Aperture or other, and form Fountains. But when the Heat above the Superficies of the Earth, is as intense as that in the interior Parts thereof, it takes the rifing Vapour, where it penetrates the Superficies of the Earth, and bears it up into the Air, or at least diminishes greatly.

They who would fee this Hypothefismore accurately explained, let them confult the learned Authorin his Book: It is enough for us only to mention it, accounting Dr Halley's Theory much more clear, and built up-

on a better Foundation.

Jurin's Appendix. the 302 The Absolute Part SECT. IV.

the great Rivers grow lefs, and the small ones are mostly dried up, because the Chanels of the later are too shallow to contain any large quantity of Water; but the former, whose Chanels are deep, do not cease running, nor are dried up, because they have collected to much Water from the former Rain and melted Snow, that it cannot all be exhaled into Vapours, except it be by a lafting and constant Heat. 2. Because there are the fewest Rivers where it feldom raineth, as in the inland

Parts of Africa there are but few Springs.

BUT these Allegations do not solve the Proposition, which doth not enquire about the Origin of Rivers, but from whence the Water of Springs proceeds; therefore they that take this to be a Solution do not understand the Sense of the Proposition, as we observed before. And even the Property they propose to prove it by is not universal; for there are Rivers sound in Places where they have feldom any Rain and no Snow, tho' what they fay is true concerning the Rivers in Egypt and Peru. Beside, Rain-Water doth not penetrate into the Ground beyond the depth of ten Foot; whereas feveral Fountains spring from a greater Depth.

2. OTHERS think, that we are not to enquire about the Origin of the Water of Springs, fince it is an Element as well as the Earth, Air, and Fire, whose Origins are not enquired into. This is Seneca's way of arguing. But these Authors cut the Gordian-knot when they cannot until it; for we do not dispute about the Principles of Water, but enquire how it flows to the Heads of Rivers, rather than to any other Place. Moreover, the Earth is not a Fluid as Water is; and to fay, that the Air

and Fire are not enquired into, is false.

3. THE Peripatetics follow the Opinion of their Master Aristotle, delivered in Chapter xi. Book. 3

Book i. de Meteor. where he endeavours to prove, that the Water of Springs is generated from Air contained in the Bowels of the Earth. These are his Reafons; 1. The Air, furrounding the Earth, is turned into Water, viz. into Rain; and therefore fince there is also Air in the Bowels of the Earth. and the fame Cause to condense it, viz. Cold, it is contrary to Reason to think that Water is not produced from Air there. 2. Experience teaches us, that great Drops gather from small ones under Ground, and therefore the Heads of Rivers are only a great many Springs gathered into one Place. For this Reason, they that make Aqueducts, use to draw the Water thro' narrow Trenches and Pipes, which distils, as it were, from the moist Earth, Drop by Drop. 3. Because most Fountains, especially of great Rivers, are found on mountainous Places, and but sew upon Planes, it is a Sign that their Water proceeds from condenfed Air or Vapours, which naturally tend towards high Places; and Mountains are Sponges, as it were, lying upon the Planes. These are Aristotle's Reasons, to which this following may be added of no less Force than the rest, viz. that when the Air is clouded and filled with Vapours, acid Fountains tafte sweeter, which is a Sign they are augmented by the Air.

4. CARDAN and others are of Opinion, that the Water of Fountains proceeds from little Drains or Guts collecting the condenfed watery Vapours both above and under Ground; but these seldom become Rivers, without being increased with Rain and melted Snow. His Reasons are these; 1. If you observe the Mountains in the Morning you will find them full of Moisture. 2. Rivers in the Morning are found to fwell, and the more the nearer

they are to their Springs.

BUT the perpetual bubbling and springing up of the Water from Fountains, without any intermission, does not seem to be produced by so weak and inconstant a Cause. Neither is there much Difference between Aristotle's Opinion and this of Cardan; only Aristotle says, Fountains proceed from Air condensed, and Cardan, from Vapours; and there is but little Difference between Air and

Vapours.

5. SOME of the Antients were of Opinion, that Rain-Water is hoarded up in the internal Caverns of the Earth, from whence it issues, as out of a great Promptuary, and that all Rivers are supplied from one common Fund, or spring one from another; also that no Water is dispersed over the Earth but fuch as is collected in the Winter Season, and reserved in these Receptacles, to be poured in due Time into innumerable Rivers. For this Cause, say they, Rivers are greater in Winter than in Summer; and fome are perennial, others not. Their Reafons are the fame with those given for the first Hypothesis. But Aristotle and his Followers reject this Opinion, because there is more Water poured out of the Mouth of one River in a Year, than the whole Bulk of the terraqueous Globe.

6. MANY of the modern Philosophers, with the Antients, suppose the Earth to suck in as much Water as it exonerates into the Sea, thro' the Mouths of Rivers; and that the Sea Water, by draining thro' the hidden Recesses of the Earth, and by being strained thro' the Mazes and Fissures, and thro' the Interstices of the Sand and Gravel, loseth it's Saltness, and becomes pure Water.

I am also of this Opinion, and think it most reasonable, but do not exclude the Causes repeated in the first and third Place. The Reasons for

ir are:

1. BECAUSE more than a thousand Rivers exonerate themselves into the Sea, and the larger fort produce fuch quantities of Water, that what each of them pours in a Year's Time into the Sea, exceeds the Bulk of the whole Earth; as what the Wolga pours into the Caspian Sea, and others. So that it is impossible but that the Water should be refunded out of the Sea into the Earth, and carried to the Heads of Rivers; else we could not conceive why the Sea is not increased to an immense Bulk, or why Springs do not cease to emit Water. Neither can any one object that there is as much Water exhaled from the Sea in Vapours, as it receives from the Rivers; for Rain alone returns these Vapours, and if the Water of Rivers were continually turned into Vapours, it would produce more than those exhaled from the Sea.

2. THIS Opinion is also thus proved, because that Springs near the Ocean are falt or brackish, and the nearer they are the Sea, the more they are fated with Salt; as on the Shore of Africa, and in India, chiefly on the Shore of Cormandel, where no Vines grow, and all their Wells taste salt. Near the Town of Suez, at the end of the Red Sea, their Springs are all falt and bitter; and even the Water which is fetched two German Miles from the Shore, tastes a little brackish. Also in several fmall Islands there are no fresh Water Springs, but all falt (tho' fomething less fated than the Ocean) as in the Island of St Vincent, and others. In the low Countries of Peru, that border upon the Ocean, their Lakes are faltest, because of the Vicinity of the Sea. And in the maritime Parts of some eastern Countries their Cocoa-nuts are observed to taste brackish. Not to mention the Salt Springs that are found in inland Countries, as in Lorrain, Lunenburg, &c.

VOL. I. 3. BECAUSE X

3. BECAUSE it is certain, that the Sea fends it's Water thro' fubterraneous Conduits to the falt Springs of Lunenburg, Hall, &c. whose Feeders are oblerved to contain perfect Sea-Water under Ground.

4. BECAUSE if we dig to a great Depth, as is often done in Mines, we shall find plenty of Water, which can neither proceed from Rain nor

Air.

BUT by what means the Water is carried from the Sea to the Fountain-Heads, and how, in the Paffage, it becomes fweet, we have already explained; and shewed that the Bottom of the Sea not being in every Place rocky, but here and there fandy, gravelly, and oozy, imbibes the Sea-Water, and letteth it into the Earth (after the fame manner as when we throw Water upon Sand, Beans, Peas, Wheat, or other forts of Grain) thro' whose Interstices it is brought by degrees to a great Distance from the Sca, where at length the small Drops come together, especially in streight Places, as are Mountains, Cc and having found an Aqueduct they discharge themselves at a Spring. But if the Cavity, where they are collected, be covered and bound up with the Earth, then the Water will take another Courfe, where it can with greater Ease infinuate itself, and spring up at an Aperture in another Place; which is not the real Fountain, but a Conveyance of the fubterraneous River to a Place above Ground. And if the Water can find no Way out of the Receptacle, and hath not force enough to make itself one, it is not increased, but the subsequent Particles of Water are turned another Way. For it is the nature of all Liquids and Fluids, that their Parts or Particles flow towards that Place where the Flux is made. Thus if you fill a Veffel with Water 'till it rife above the Brim, tho' all the raifed Parts

of the Water equally press the Brim, and have an equal Tendency and Power to run over at the next Side, yet if on one Side of the Vessel any part of the incumbent Water be made to flow, the rest will forfake their respective Sides, and move (as if they were drawn) towards that Side where the Flux is begun (the Cause of which it belongs to Physics to explain) (b). Or if you put one end of a Piece of Bread into Water or Wine, you will fee the Water move upwards and diffuse itself thro' the Part above Water. Moreover the Sea eafily pervades the Fissures of the Earth, and therefore with the same ease may glide out of them; except we had rather ascribe this to Evaporation, whereby the Particles are carried upwards, and condenfed into Drops, when they meet with narrow Places.

BUT because there are some Arguments, which may feem to render this Opinion less probable, we will discuss them here, lest they should seem like

Blots upon our Hypothesis.

1. SPRING-Heads are more elevated than the Superficies of the Sea, and for the most part are feated in mountainous Places; therefore it is contrary to the Nature of Water to move from the Sea up to these Places; for Water always runs downwards, as is manifest from Rivers and Drains.

2. THO' the Bottom of the Sea be fandy, gravelly, and spongy, so that the Water may easily pervade the Interstices; yet for what Reason should it not rather moisten the subjacent Parts of the Earth, than ascend upwards, and glide to the Ducts of Fountains, when the Earth near the Sur-

the Parts of one another; Thus the Particles that first begin to flow, draw the next Particles to

<sup>(</sup>b) Wegather from Sir Isaac Newton's Principles, that it is Water attracteth Water, and the Nature of Fluids (and of all the Matter in the Universe) mutually to attract themselves, and them, and these the next, &c.  $\mathbf{X}$ 

face is commonly rocky and stony, as in the Mountains of the Island of St Helena?

3. W E have no Reafon affigned why the Water as it flows from the Sea to remote Fountains, does not break out in some intermediate Place. And we are as much in the dark, why there is none or very little Water found in deep Mines, as we are told by Thurnheuserus.

4. SPRING Water must be falt, if it proceed

from the Sea.

THESE are the chief Arguments which feem to invalidate our proposed Hypothesis; for I pass by those of less moment alledged by others, as that the Sea cannot supply so many Rivers: and then again, that Rivers would never lessen, if they proceed from whence we fay they do. These two are foon answered; for first, the Sea receives the Water it emits into Fountains, from the Rivers; and the other, as we observed before, is not the Ouestion, for we are not arguing, that all the Water of Rivers proceeds from the Sea, but only the Water of Fountains, which of themselves make Rivers, as we faid before; where we also afferted, that Fountains are augmented by Rain and Dew, which fink down into the Earth and either foke and moisten it, or are drawn towards the Fountainheads by the Efflux of the Water, as we shewed by other Examples. Let us therefore return to examine the other four Arguments which feem to be of fome Weight.

THE first is thought to be the strongest, as being taken from Experience, and therefore the Learned have contrived feveral Answers to it. They come off easiest who affert that the Ocean is higher than the Earth, and confequently higher than the Fountain-heads; wherefore fay they, Water naturally flows to the Fountains, because they are of a less Altitude than the Ocean. Olea-

rius also in his Description of his Travels into Perfia relates, that having ascended one of the Mountains which bordereth upon the Caspian Sea, he tried the Altitude of it above the Superficies of that Sea with an Astrolabe (or rather a Surveying Instrument) and found none; but observed, that the extream parts of the Sea feemed to be in the fame horizontal Line, or even a little elevated above it; and therefore the bulging of the Sea made it as high, or even a little higher, than the top of the Mountain, where he took the Observation. But this Solution notwithstanding cannot be admitted, because we proved in Chap. xiii, that the Superficies of the Ocean is not higher than the Land, or than Mountains, but rather lower, as appears also from frequent Observations made by expert Mathematicians. As to Olearius's Observation, it is not to be infifted upon here; for the Caspian Sea is not higher than it's Shores, much less than the Mountains, as appears from the many Rivers that exonerate themfelves into it. We must therefore suppose, that Refraction obstructed Oleanius's Observation, and made the Surface of the Sea appear higher than it really is; and perhaps the fluctuating of the Waves might increase the Cause, or the Mountain which he afcended was of no great Height.

THE Weakness therefore of this Solution being exposed, others propose this; that the natural Place of the Waters is about the Earth, and therefore they ought to furround or cover it, because they are lighter; and because they are hindered from posfesting their natural Place by the Mountains and Hills, and the Elevation of the inland Places, that part of the Ocean which should be where the Mountains and high Parts are, being thrust out of it's natural Place, violently presses the Water underneath it, which tho' it be in it's natural Posture, yet being squeezed and pressed towards the bottom,

X 3

by the superincumbent Water, it is forced to give way, and finding no place to flow to, it retires towards the Sides, and pervades the Foundations of the Mountains; where being collected, as in a Ciftern, it is ftill urged forwards towards the tops of the Mountains by the incumbent Water of the Ocean. As we may observe in a Tankard that has a Pipe on the fide (reaching to the very bottom) made to pour Wine thro' into Glasses; if, I fay, we drop a Stone into fuch a Vessel, whether it be full or half full of Liquors it will spout out at the Orifice of the Pipe. This is Scaliger's Subtility, but it is too gross to pass. For the Water is not thus forced towards the tops of the Mountains, since Experience shews us the contrary in Mines; and if it were fo, the Water of all Springs would be falt; besides, it is false to say that the Water is not in it's natural Place, and therefore presses upon the Water underneath, for this is assumed without Proof, and is contrary to Experience. Water does not prefs upon the Parts below, unless it's Surface be of an unequal Altitude, but the Surface of the Ocean is spherical and consequently at Rest. Moreover, if the Waters were moved by any Pressure, it would be towards the Shores, where the Passage is more open than the small Fissures of the Earth. And the' there be great outlets at the bottom of the Sea, for the Water to flow through, yet fince it is falt, it cannot make fresh-water Fountains. I think the true Answer to this Argument is not far to fetch, if, we consider how Water is conveyed to Fountains, not by any Chanel or Pipe from the bottom of the Sea, or the Root of the Mountain (by which means it would still keep it's Saltness), but by a continual distilling, gleeting, and straining of the watery Particles thro' the terrestrial Matter, till they find a Receptacle fit to collect and condense them into Drops, where being continually succeeded by others,

others, they have recourse to some Conveyance, and through it break forth at a Fountain. And weobserve this very thing in Mines dug to a vast Depth, how that Water on every Side is continue ally dropping, and collecting itself into small Guts, which they call Veins of Water; and if feveral fuch Guts or Runnels as these concur in one Receptacle, they form a Fountain, as they who make Drains, to bring Water into Wells, very well know. For in most Draw-Wells the Water is collected from the dropping of the Earth, round about into the bottom of the Well; and they that make Aqueducts dig small Furrows in Gutters to collect the Waters, and then convey it in a large one to the intended Place. If it be objected, that many Fountains are observed to spring up among Rocks, where it is likely the watery Particles can scarce be admitted; I answer, That this confirms our Opinion; for these Rocks are not continued to the foot of the Mountain (upon which fuch Springs are found) but only cover the Surface to a small Depth, and the Earth is lighter and less rocky within, or at least fit to give Admission to the Water, which, when it comes to the Strata of the Stones, can penetrate no farther, but is there impeded and collected into Drops, and breaks out into a Fountain among the Rocks, if it can find any Aperture. Moreover, the rocky Mountains in the Island of St Helena, and in most other Islands, are not within fo dense and obdurate, as appears from the Cinders, Ashes, and sulphureous Earth; which shews that these Mountains fome time or other burnt or fmoaked. And to this we may add, that the Fountain is not always. in the Place where the Water breaks out, which is conveyed very often from a higher Place, by a Chanel under Ground, and this causes it to break forth with greater Violence, as is very often observed. X 4

We may be further convinced of the Truth of these Things, by considering that Fire will tend downwards thro' a Continuation of Matter, tho' of it's own Nature, when it is free from Matter, it tends upwards, Thus if you put one End of a Bar of Iron into the Fire, it will penetrate thro' the whole, and heat the other End, tho' it be turned downwards. And this is fufficient to convince any one of the Invalidity of the first Argument:

TO the Second we answer, That the Reason why the Sea-Water doth not penetrate and fink into the Earth towards the Center, fo much as into the Mountains, is, because the Earth there is denfer, and full of Metals, as we find by Experience; but where it is not fo obdurate, the Water glides in, and therefore if there are Receptacles under the bottom of the Sea, we do not deny but that there may be fome fresh and falt Water Lakes there. But because there are few such Receptacles, and the Earth every where is denfe and metalline, under the bottom of the Sea, it cannot constantly imbibe Water; but when it is faturated it receives no more, and then the overplus Water distils towards the higher Places. And the Sea constantly changing it's Altitude, and fluctuating backwards and forwards, may contribute much to elevate the Water; for where it is higher than ordinary, it must certainly press the Water into the Earth, and drive it to the Fountain-Heads. And fince the Surface of the Ocean in every Place is constantly agitated, and made higher and lower, not only by Storms, but also by the Tides, therefore such a Pressure as this must happen every Day. But I question whether this can do much.

TO the third Argument we fay, That this is owing to the Disposition or Situation of the Strata of the Earth, or of the Earth itself, and that it is the natural of all Fluids to gather to a Head, where there is a Flux. I think there is no need of faying

any more to this.

BUT the fourth is not fo eafily answered, for we do not perceive Salt to be separated from Sea-Water only by Percolation or Straining. Beside, there are two kinds of Salt in Water (which the Aristotelians did not consider) the one of which is very well named, by Chemists, fixed, and the other volatile. The fixed Salts may indeed, by continual straining, or boiling, or distilling of the Sea-Water, be separated from it; but the volatile Salt is fo full of Spirit, that it flies up with the Water, and cannot be separated from it, neither by frequent Distillations nor any other Art hitherto used. Therefore it is very difficult to shew how this volatile Spirit of Salt is separated from the Sea-Water, in it's Passage from the Ocean to Fountain-Heads. The following Accounts will ferve our Turn. 1. Tho' we have not found out the Art of feparating the volatile Spirit of Salt from Sea-Water, yet we cannot deny but that it may be done, fince we fee it separated by Nature, when it rains fresh Showers in the main Ocean, tho' they proceed from Vapours exhaled from the Sea. 2. The Particles of falt Water which pervade the Fiffures of the Earth, before they come to their Fountain, are mixed with other fresh Water, which proceeds from Rain and Vapours condenfed there, whereby the small Degree of volatile Salt that remains in them is rendered insensible. 3. It is not true that all Fountains are entirely deprived of Saltness, for there are some falt Springs, as we faid before, about two Miles from Suez, and in feveral other Places not so far from the Sea. Therefore to separate the volatile Salt from the Water, a long Transcolation, and a gentle Evaporation is required, and thus it is to be separated by Art; and thus thus also is Rain-Water generated and made fresh; tho' fometimes saltish Showers are observed to fall into the Sea.

THE Water of Springs therefore proceeds partly from the Sea, or subterraneous Water, and partly from Rain and Dew that moistens the Earth. But the Water of Rivers proceeds partly from Springs, and partly from Rain and Snow.

#### PROPOSITION VI.

Some Rivers in the middle of their Course, hide themselves under Ground, and rise up in another Place, as if they were new Rivers.

#### THE most famous are:

1. THE Niger, a River in Africa, which some antient Cosmographers would have to proceed from the Nile, by a subterraneous Chanel, because it overslows it's Banks at the same Time of the Year, and after the same manner that the Nile does: and they could not shew a better Cause for it's Inundation. This River meeting with the Mountains of Nubia, hideth itself under them, and emerges again on the West Side of the Mountains (c).

2. THE Tigris in Mesopotamia, after it has passed the Lake Arethusa, meets with Mount Taurus, and plunges itself into a Grotto, and slows out at the other Side of the Mountain; also after

(c) This River hides itself no where under Ground that we know of; tho' perhaps we are not certain whether it do or no, because no European has traced it to it's Fountain: Only the Zeebe, a large Branch of it, (which proceeds from the Lake Zaire, and was some time since

taken for the upper Part of the Nile) meeting with the Mountains of Nimeamay, is faid to divide itself into several streams, and immerge under them, and to emerge again on the North side of the Mountains. But I do not write this as a Certainty.

it has run thro' the Lake Tospia it again immerges, and being carried under Ground about fix German Miles, it breaks out again. Our modern Maps

feldom exhibit fuch Receptacles.

3. ARISTOTLE (in Book i. Chap. xi. Meteor.) writes, that there were feveral fuch Brooks in the Peloponnesus about Arcadia; some of which are mentioned by the Poets. The two following, viz. Lycus and Erasinus, are excellently described by Ovid in the following Verses.

> So Lycus swallow'd by the yawning Earth, Takes in another Place it's second Birth: Great Erasinus now seems lost, but yields His rifing Waters to th' Arcadian Fields.

MORRICE.

4. THE Alpheus, a River in Greece, is swallowed by the Earth, and, as the Greek Poets write, takes it's Course under both Sea and Land into Sicily, where it rifes, as they fay, on the Syracufian Shore, and is the same with the River called Aretbusa in Sicily (d). This they were induced to think, because that this River, every fifth Summer, did cast up the Dung of Cattle, at the same Time that the Olympic Games were celebrated in Achaia, when the Dung of the flain Victims was thrown into the Alpheus, which was therefore carried with a direct Course into Sicily.

5. THE River Guadiana, between Portugal and Andalusia, (formerly called Anas) hideth itself

are thought to be meer Poetical Fictions, for no fuch Rivers are found to exist at present. That which was anciently called Alpheus is now named Carbon or Orfea, which rifes from the

(d) This (and alfo the former) Mountain Stymphalus, and running all it's Course above Ground, receives a great Number of Rivers, and afterwards falls into the Gulph of Caftel di Tornese.

under Ground, near the Town of Medelin, and gushes out again about eight German Miles from

that Place (e).

6. THE Brook Dan (which together with For makes the River Jordan) emerges some Miles below it's real Fountain the Lake Phyala; for Chaff being thrown in here is cast up at the other end of the Orifice, or where the Fountain feems to be.

PLINY and others have wrote that the Nile, in fome Places, runs under Ground; but we know, by Experience, that it runs it's whole Course above Ground. Aristotle also tells us, that the Po, a famous River in Italy, hideth itself for some Space under Ground; but Experience shews the contrary.

THE Reason why these Rivers hide themselves under the Earth and appear again, is, because they meet with elevated Ground which they cannot overflow, and therefore are forced to glide into the next Grotto they meet with: or make themselves a subterraneous Chanel, if the Earth be foft and easy to

penetrate.

THERE are also some Rivers that hide themfelves under Ground, but do not appear any more; as we shall shew presently.

#### PROPOSITION VII.

Most of the small Rivers, many of the middling ones, and all the large ones, exonerate themselves into the Sea, or into a Lake; and the Place where they discharge their Water is called their Mouth. Some Rivers also have one Mouth, some two, some

merly) by all the Spaniards that (e) This River is at prefent faid, not to bury itself under have mentioned it. Ground (as was reported for-

CHAP. 16. of Universal Geography. 317

three, and others more. Several of the middling, and small Rivers discharge themselves into the great ones: the rest either stagnate, or are swallowed up by the Earth.

CONCERNING the great Rivers the thing is manifest, as the Rhine, the Elbe, the Danube, the Wolea, &c. The Danube discharges itself at five Mouths into the Euxine Sea; the Wolga is reckoned by fome to have at least feventy Mouths; the Nile

feven, and, when it overflows, more (f).

THE Reason why these great Rivers exonerate themselves into the Sea is their swift Course, and their Plenty of Water; and why at more than one Mouth is, 1. [The Situation of the Coast]. 2. The Shelves and Sand-Banks, which are gathered in their Mouths, and in Process of Time become Islands; and if there happen to be but one of these, the River is divided into two Branches, and is faid to have two Mouths; if more, the Mouths are increased accordingly. By this means the Land often gains on the Sea; and few great Rivers are found without fome Islands before their Mouths.

THE Ancients tell us, that the Nile formerly discharged it's Water at one Mouth only, which they called the Canobian Mouth. To these two Causes therefore a third may be added, viz. Human Industry. For People often draw Canals from Rivers, or turn them thro' a new Chanel, into the Sea, partly to water their Fields, and partly for the Use of Navigation, and in process of Time these are made larger by the Current. And therefore we may believe the Antients, when they tell us, that all the Mouths of the Nile, except that at Canobus, were made by Human Industry. But

<sup>(</sup>f) See the next Note below.

of this more fully in the next Proposition, where we shall explain how it comes to pass, that one River flows into the Chanel of another.

THE River Wolcoff, in Muscovy, (not Wolga)

arises from one Lake, and runs into another.

RIVULETS, or Brooks, that neither run into the Sea, nor into other Rivers, are either peculiar Rivers, or Branches of others. They that are the Branches of other Rivers probably stagnate, and do not run under Ground; and the Reason why they do not reach the Sea is, 1. Because their Chanels lie low, and contain but little Water. 2. Because they meet with rocky Ground, which hinders their Progress. 3. Several of them are made by Art, to moisten the Ground, and for the Use of their Water. 4. Perhaps their Mouths are stopped or obstructed, by intervening Land, which is gained from the Sea, or by Shelves, which are increased to such a Bulk as to stop their Current; fo that they are forced to retreat towards their Fountain, or to the Place where they divaricated. Thus a Branch of the Rhine, which formerly ran into the German Ocean, at the Huys le Britain, near Catwick, is now choaked up with Sand, and stagnates between Catwick and Leyden.

BUT fuch as are proper Rivers, and neither run into others, nor exonerate themselves into the Sea, but spring up in one Place, and are swallowed up in another, are few in Number, and very finall; as those that flow from the Mountains of Peru, India, and Africa, are buried in the Gravel, or fucked up by the fandy Soil. Also at Meten (a Village near the Arabian Gulph) there is a small River whose Chanel is full of Gravel, under which the Water in Summer-Time hides itself, and glides along out of Sight. If these Rivers find no subterraneous Passage they run into small Lakes, or Bogs; but some of them spring so slowly, that

they

CHAP. 16. of Universal Geography. 319 they are exhaled into Vapours, almost as fast as they spring, and thus they are dried up, and neither make Lakes, nor run under Ground. There are several of these in Muscovy; as the Conitra, the Salle, the Maressa, the Jeleesa, and others taken Notice of in larger Maps.

# PROPOSITION VIII.

To determine whether the Chanels, in which Rivers flow, were originally made by Art or Nature.

IT is probable the Chanels of those Rivers, which are not of the same date with the Earth it felf, were made by Industry, for these Reasons: 1. We are well affured that when new Fountains break forth, the running Water does not make itfelf a Chanel, but diffuses it's Streams over the adjacent Country, and therefore wants to be brought to a Chanel by Art. 2. Because there are several Canals even now cut by Hand. So the Chinese have cut a Canal for the Water to run out of the yellow River into another. There are feveral other well known Instances which I omit. 3. Because such Lakes and Marshes found about the Fountains of several Rivers, viz. of the Nile, the Tanias, the Wolga, &c. confirm this. For fince these Lakes, without doubt, were made by the Effusion and spreading of the Fountain-Water, the Inhabitants, to drain it from their Fields, which were in danger of being overflowed, made a Chanel to contain it, and carry it off. The same is to be understood of Rivers, whose Heads are in Mountains.

THERE is a Question like this; viz. Whether the Rivers which exonerate themselves into others, have of themselves made their way thither, or have been brought thither by Chanels made with hands?

320 The Absolute Part SECT. IV.

The latter is more probable for the Reasons as a fore-faid. The same may be said of such Branches of Rivers as make and enclose Islands in the Tanais, the Wolga, and others. So one Branch of the Euphrates, gliding thro' the Marshes of Chaldea, was formerly carried that way into the Sea, but afterwards it lest it's Course, being choaked up with Sand, and partly dispersed it's Streams among the innumerable Canals which were made by the Inhabitants to water the Fields; and partly by a new Chanel mixed it's Waters with the Tigris. And this seems to be the Case of other Rivers which do not now reach the Sea, but stagnate; tho' perhaps they might have had a Passage into it formerly.

#### PROPOSITION IX.

To explain why there are no falt Rivers, tho' there are fo many falt Springs.

THE Reason is, because Mankind have no occasion for falt Water, and therefore do not collect it into Chanels, since they can have Salt at an easier rate. But if Chanels were made as for other Rivers, we should have falt Rivulets, such as are in Lunenburg, and Hall, under Ground. And no doubt but there are several such subterraneous salt Rivers in other Parts of the World.

#### PROPOSITION X.

The Chanels of Rivers the nearer they are to their Fountains, are generally so much the higher; and most of them are depressed gradually towards their Mouths.

THO' it may fometimes happen, that the Parts of the Chanel which are more remote from the Fountain, are higher than the Places that are

nearer it; for they are not always even throughout, but have here and there Hills and Vallies, as we may call them, interspersed. Notwithstanding no part of the Chanel is higher than the Fountainhead.

THE Proposition is plain from the Nature of Water, which never flows but from a higher to a lower Place, and therefore every Part of the Chanel (especially the Mouth of the River) must of Necessity be lower than the Fountain; else the Water would flow back again to it's Source. But it is true also, that the parts of the Chanel are elevated either way, because in many Places there are Whirlpools which draw the Water downwards; besides Shoals, Ridges, and Sand-banks, which increase the Altitude of the Chanel, and make it higher in some parts than in others nearer the Fountain; yet the River flows forward from the Fountain towards it's Mouths, and fills the hollow Places with a greater Quantity of Water, fo that their Superficies are still higher than the Shoals, Sands, &c. which would otherwise obstruct it's Passage. And there are fcarce any Rivers but what have fuch Inequalities in their Chanels, especially the Nile and the Wolga which in some Places are almost choaked up with Sand.

WHEN the Water of a River falls from a high to a low Place, if the Fall be steep, and if it gushes down swiftly and with great Force, it is called the Catarast of the Rivers. And there are several such Catarasts in great Rivers; especially in the Nile; two of which are extraordinary, where the Water gushes between the Mountains with such Rapidity and Noise, that the Inhabitants, within the sound of them, are said to be all deaf.

THE [Wolcoff] a small River in Muscovy, hath

also two Catarasts near Ladoga,

THE Laire also in Congo hath a Catarast about fix German Miles from the Sea, where it wholly falls from a Mountain. The Rhine hath two dangerous ones at Schaffhuysen and Lauffenburg, where the whole River falls with a dreadful Noise, from the tops of Rocks.

BUT they that are skilled in Hydraulics observe, that if the Chanel of any River be depressed one Pace in 500, it is scarcely navigable, by reason of it's Rapidity; and since all great Rivers are navigable, it shews that their Chanels in no Place are depressed so much as one Pace in 500; except where there are Cataracts and Whirlpools.

THE Depression of one part of a River below another, is called it's Level; and the difference between the Altitude of the Fountain-head of a River and it's Mouth, is called the Depth of the Level of a

River.

### PROPOSITION XI.

To explain why Rivers are broader in one Part than another.

THE Causes are; 1. If the Bank, or Shore, be lower than ordinary. 2. If the Ground be soft and mouldering, and give way to the violent beating of the Waves, or to the Rapidity of the Water. 3. If the Chanel be shallow or full of Shelves and Sands. 4. If the Water flow from a Cataract, it spreads and makes the River broader.

#### PROPOSITION XII.

To explain why, the Chanels of Rivers are more depressed in some Places than in others.

CHAP. 16. of Universal Geography.

323

RIVERS become shallow by these Accidents; 1. If Sands are gathered. 2. If the River run

broad. 3. If it run flow.

ON the contrary they become deep, if the current runs strong, especially from a Cataract; or if the Chanel be narrow, or if the Bottom be soft and mouldering.

### PROPOSITION XIII.

To explain why some Rivers run with a swift Current and others slow: and why the same River (for example the Rhine) acquires different Degrees of Rapidity in several Places.

THE Causes are; 1. The Altitude of the Fountain. 2. The Declivity of the Chanel, or the Depression of the Mouth of the River; for if the Chanel be depressed one Pace in five hundred, the Current is so rapid that Navigation becomes dangerous (as was observed before); therefore Rivers slow with the greatest Rapidity where there are Cataracts; and those Torrents are most impetuous which fall from the highest and steepest Mountains. 3. The narrowness of the Chanel, and the abundance of Water; as where a River runs between two Mountains, or Forelands.

RIVERS famous for their swift Course are; the Tigris, the Indus, the Danube, the Yrtisch in Siberia, the Malmistra in Cilicia; which last makes such a dreadful Noise, that it may be heard a

great way off.

# PROPOSITION XIV.

[When the Mouths of Rivers are broad and shallow and discharge but a small quantity of Water, and that slowly, they are easily stopped or choaked up.]

FOR these Causes make it flow with less Force, so that it cannot disgorge the Sand and Earth into the Sea, but lets them settle in it's Mouth, whereby it is soon stopped.

## PROPOSITION XV.

Few Rivers run in a direct Course from their Fountains to their Mouths, but turn various ways, and make innumerable Windings and Curvatures.

THE Cause is partly owing to the Industry of Man, and the Motion of the Water; and partly to the Rocks that impede and divert the direct Course.

THE winding Rivers are; 1. The [River of the Amazons] in South America, which makes innumerable Curvatures, so that it's Chanel is accounted above fifteen hundred German Miles long, tho' it be only seven hundred Miles from the Fountain to the Mouth in a direct Line.

2. THE River Madre in Natolia is faid to

have fix hundred Curvatures.

3. THE River Tara in Siberia is interrupted by fo many windings and turnings, that the Ruffians and Siberians, when they fail on it, often carry their Boats and their Burdens, by Land, from one Reach to another, to fave Time and Labour.

### PROPOSITION XVI.

To determine whether the Lakes that some Rivers feem to pass through, be made by the Rivers themselves, or are fed by their own proper Springs, and increase the Rivers: or whether the Rivers that slow from them, be the same that slow into them,

THERE

THERE are but some few Rivers that pass thro' such Lakes; the Nubia in Africa hath sive, the Niger sour, and the Rhone has the Lake of

Geneva, &c.

WE faid of these Lakes in the foregoing Chapter, that the River which runs in, must be compared with that which runs out; and if this be larger than the other, there are certainly Springs in the Bottom which feed that Lake, and the River: but if it be less, or of the same bigness, then is the Lake made and fed by the River which runs into it; and the Cause of this Lake is the Breadth, Depression, and Concavity, of the Chanel; and a Lake may be thus made in any River, as we said before.

A ND if the River which runs out, be in a direct Line with that which runs in, it is to be accounted the fame, or a Part of the fame River, tho' perhaps it may be greater or even less, yet I think it is not to be doubted but that it is still

a Part of the same.

YET the Rhone enters the Lake of Geneva, and flows thro' it, but doth not make or feed it; as appears for the different Colour of the Water of the Lake, and of the River, (and other things) neither doth the Rhone make any Lakes, but is wholly fed by Springs and Rivulets. Tho' I do not fay this is certainly true.

#### PROPOSITION XVII.

The further Rivers have run from their Fountains, the more they increase in Breadth; and are broadest at their Mouths.

THE Reason is; 1. Because that other Rivers mix with them, and continually increase them. 2. Because the Declivity of the Chanel is not so great

great near the Mouth. 3. Because that Sea-Breezes frequently blow the Water up into the River near the Mouth, but do not affect it in Places near the Fountain. 4. The Sea-Water also enters the Mouth of the River when fuch Breezes blow, and makes it wider by it's violent Agitation.

THE fewer Mouths any River hath, the

broader they are.

RIVERS remarkable for their broad Mouths are; the great River of the Amazons in South America, the River of St Laurence in Canada, the Zaire in Africa, and the Rio de la Plata in Brafil. This last is faid by some to be forty Leagues broad at the Mouth, tho' others fay but twenty; perhaps the former take in the other Mouths of this River. They that have been in Congo relate that the Mouth of the Zaire is twenty eight German Miles broad. Such Rivers as these pour such vast quantities of Water into the Ocean, that they take away the Saltness of the Sea near the Shore, and disturb it's Motion, for twelve or fixteen German Miles round them.

#### PROPOSITION XVIII.

Rivers often carry along with them Particles of various Metals and Minerals; as also of Sand, and of fat and oily Bodies.

THE following Rivers are auriferous, that is, have Grains of Gold mixed with their Sands, viz. 1. Some in Japan. 2. Some in the adjacent Islands to Japan. 3. A Brook called Arroë, which springs from the Foot of the Mountains of the Moon in Monomotapa (where there are Gold Mines), and falls into the River Magnice. 4. Some in Guinea, where the Negroes gather the Grains, and separate them from the Sand to exchange with the

Europeans,

Europeans, who fail thither for that Purpose. If the Particles are very small they call it Gold-Dust, which is the best, and needs but little cleansing. 5. In all the Brooksabout the City of Mexico, there are found Grains of Gold, especially after Showers of Rain; but there are feldom any found but in the rainy Seasons. 6. In Peru. 7. In Sumatra. 8. In Cuba. 9. In Hispaniola, and other adjacent Mands. 10. In Guiana, a Province of South America. 11. In the Rivulets of the Caribbees, there are found great Lumps of Gold after Showers of Rain. The Inhabitants cast Nets into the Rivers when these are out, and catch the Sand, from which they can eafily separate the Gold. 12. There are several Rivers and Fountains in the Countries near the Alps in Germany, particularly in the County of Tyrol, from whose Waters they extract Gold and Silver, tho' there be no Grains of either Metal to be perceived in the Water, they lie in such smail Particles or Atoms. The Rbine also, and the Elbe has golden Clay in feveral Places. The Tagus, or Tago, a most celebrated River in Spain, was formerly famous for carrying Gold-Sands at the Bottom: but there are none now; nor do I hear of much Riches got that way out of any River in Europe, tho' some boast of a small Rivulet in Hesse, which has Gold mixed with it's Sand; but I have not read it in any Author of Credit.

NO Rivers, which in like manner produce Silver, are taken Notice of by Authors; yet it is not to be doubted but there are as many if not more of this Sort also; only because Silver is not so easily discerned from the Sand, and no great Profit is expected to requite the Pains of extracting it, no Body has thought it worth their while to take Notice of it. And for this Reason there hath been no mention made of those Rivers that carry Grains of Iron, Copper, Tin, &c. except

Y 4

of some few; tho' without doubt there are great Numbers of them in the World, at whose furprizing effects Men are amazed; and superficial Philosophers have here recourse to occult Qualities. If we observe the River in High Germany which turns Iron into Copper (as is commonly thought), we admire that a Horse-shoe of Iron should, by hanging in it for some Time, be turned into one of perfect Copper. But, in truth, the Iron is not changed into Copper (as is vulgarly supposed), but the Grains and Particles of Copper and Vitriol that are in this River, moving with the Water, corrode the Iron, whose Particles being removed, those of Copper succeed in their Places.

NEITHER is there much Notice taken of fuch Rivulets as are impregnated with various kinds of Earth, Salt, and other Fossils, but we shall treat largely of mineral and metallic Springs, in the fol-

lowing Chapter.

FROM this Mixture of different Particles proceeds a strange Diversity of Waters, in Rivers and Wells. Some Water if you boil Meat in it, makes it black, which is a Sign that it is impregnated with Iron; nor will Peafe boil foft fo foon in this, as in other Water that is fomething fat and oily. Neither can the same Beer be made of different Waters. That Water which hath Particles of Iron in it we call hard Water; but if it be mixed with fat and oily Particles, we call it soft Water. The Elbe is a foft Water River, as we may call it, which (as Experience shews) is owing to the clayey and fruitful Ground it washes. And every other variety of Water arises from the different forts of Earth, thro' which the Spring or River is carried, whether it be clayey, rocky, or metallic, &c.

#### PROPOSITION XIX.

The Waters of most Rivers differ in Colour, Gravity, and other Qualities.

FOR fome Waters are black and fome dusky, fome incline to a red Colour, and others to a white.

A N D this difference is best observed when two Rivers meet, where we can discern the Water of each distinctly, after they have run some Paces in the same Chanel; also by this we may perceive their different Gravity, by Reason that one tends more to the Bottom of the Chanel than the other.

THE Water of the River Ganges is accounted very light and wholesome, and the Emperor of Guzarat, or the Great Mogul, in whatever place he is, takes care that this Water be carried along with him in Bottles, of which he alone drinketh. Others will have the Nile to produce the softest and most wholsome Water. Heavy Water is for the most Part impregnated with Iron or Mercury.

TO understand the Nature of great Rivers we must look into the Rivulets that compose them; (for the Rhine receives many mineral Rivers, and the Danube takes in such as carry Gold, Iron, Vitriol, &c.) from whence their different Qualities arise, tho' most Fountains have something of these in them.

# PROPOSITION XX.

Some Rivers, at a set Time of the Year, rise beyond their Banks, and overflow the adjacent Countries.

THE first and most celebrated among these is the Nile, which swells to such a degree that it covers

all the Land of Egypt, except the Hills. The Deluge begins about the seventeenth of June, and increases forty Days, and decreases as many, so that at this Time, all the Cities, which are most of them built upon Hills: appear like fo many Islands. Antiquity hath given a large Account of this Inundation, because in that Part of the Earth which was then known (before the eastern and western Parts were discovered) no River was found to be the same, except the Niger, which therefore was supposed to communicate with the Nile under Ground. Seneca has described the Inundation of the Nile the best of all the Antients, and therefore I cannot but give it in his Words. · THE Nile (fays be) is increased in the middle of Summer, from before the rifing of the little Dog-Star, to beyond the Autumnal Equinox. \* Nature hath placed this most noble River in the Sight of all Mankind, and ordered it so, that it should overflow Egypt at a Time when the Earth,

being drieft with the Summer Heat, might fuck in more of it's Water, and sufficiently quench 'it's annual Thirst. For in that part of Egypt which lies towards Ethiopia there are few or no

· Showers, and those that fall do not refresh the Earth, which is unaccustomed to Rain-Water.

· Egypt builds her whole hope upon this, and is fertile, or barren, according as the River affords it more or less Water. The Husband-

e man never minds the Heavens, and the Poet

Ovid does not jest when he says.

# The Herbs befeech not Jove to pour Himself upon them in a Shower.

· If we knew where it begins to increase, we might perhaps find out the Cause of it's Increase. But after it had wandered over vast Desarts, and

c made

CHAP. 16. of Universal Geography.

331

6 made it's way thro' Fens and Marshes, and unknown Countries, it collects it's diforderly Waters about Philas. The Island of Philas being on every fide rocky and rugged, is washed by two Rivers which there come together and furround the whole Mand. These losing their former Names, 6 mixtogether and are called the Nile, which being increased in breadth, glides gently from thence thro' Ethiopia, and the fandy Defarts that afford a Passage to the Commerce of the Indian Sea. · The Cararacts afterward receive it, which fill the · Eye with fomething great and amazing; there the Nile rushes against the broken Mountains in it's way, and is forced in to the narrow Passages and Hollows that are made in the hard Rocks, dashing against the Stones that obstruct it's Curerent, and overflowing fometimes all the obstacles that interrupt it. Here it's Course is obstructed, which makes it rife in waves and furges: and 6 there it is confined between two Rocks, and frets and foams to be enlarged; fo that it's Waters, which before glided gently along, being now put into a violent Agitation, rush from one Rock 6 to another, and make it appear more like a Torrent than a River. Now it looks thick, mud-<sup>8</sup> dy, and troubled, and half covered with Froth, which is not it's natural Colour, but owing to the Injury of the Places it flowed thro'. At length having freed itself from all Obstacles, it falls on a fudden from a prodigious Height, and with a Noise dreadful to the Country thereabouts; which a Colony that were placed there, by the · Persians, could not endure; their Ears being ' fo stunned with the continual Noise, that they \* were forced to transport themselves to more quiet Habitations. The incredible Boldness of the Inhabitants is reported among the Miracles of this River. They get into their Boats by o pairs

The Absolute Part SECT. IV. 332 pairs, the one guides it, and the other throws out the Water, and after they have tumbled fome Time among the raging Waves of the · Nile, they get into the narrowest Chanels, and avoid as much as possible the dangerous Creeks in the Rocks; then guiding the Boat with their · Hands, they are carried headlong down the middle of the Current, by the force of the whole River, and when the Spectators are in great Fear, and begin to lament, believing they are overfet and drowned by the great Weight of the Water, yet they are in an instant seen sailing a great way from the Place where they fell down, being carried as swift as a Stone out of an Engine. · Nor does the Boat in it's Fall overset, but is carried fafe into the smooth Water. The first rifing of the Nile is perceived about the foree mentioned Isle of Philas, a little way from whence s it is divided by a Rock (called, by the Greeks, · Abaton) which none ever ascend but their Ru-· lers: there the rifing of the River is observed and marked upon the Sides of the Rock. A great way below this there are two eminent Rocks, called, by the Inhabitants, the Veins of the Nile, from which a great Force of Water floweth; yet not fo much as to do any harm to · Egypt. The Priests throw Offerings in at these · Mouths, and the Governours Gifts of Gold, while the holy Rites are performing. From this being hemmed in by the Mountains on each Side, and hindered from enlarging it's Breadth.

· Place the Nile feems as if it had got new Strength, and is rolled along a narrow and deep Chanel,

When it comes to Memphis, it is again at Li-

berty, and wanders over the Country, dividing itself into Rivulets, and diffusing it's Streams over all Egypt, thro' innumerable Canals, made

by Art as commodious as possible. At first it

CHAP. 16. of Universal Geography. ' is divided, but the Waters being continued, it flagnates and appears like a large troubled Sea. ' The Breadth of the Country, thro' which it is extended, breaks the Violence of it's Current, being no less than the whole Land of Egypt. · As much as the Nile increases, so much do their · Hopes for that Year; and the Husbandman is onot deceived who computes his product by the · Measure of the River. It brings troubled Water and Mud upon the fandy and dry Soil, and e leaves it's Dregs and Filth upon the Ground that is most chapped with Drought, and whatever clammy Fatness it brings along with it, ' is sprinkled upon the driest Places; so that it ' manures the Ground two ways, by watering it, and covering it with Mud; but the Places it doth onot reach are bare and unfruitful. If it increase above fuch a height it does not fo well. The ' Nature of this River is also wonderful; for when other small Rivers waste and wash out the Fate ness of the Earth, the Nile, by how much it excels others in Greatness, is so far from wasting ' and eating out any Thing, that it rather adds new Vigour to the pining Ground, and at least puts it into a better Temper, by faturating the fandy Places with Slime and Mud; fo that \* Egypt does not only owe the Fertility of it's Soil to the Nile, but even also the Soil itself. When it overflows the Fields, it makes a pleafant appearance, for the Plains and Vallies lie hid under the Water, and the Towns, appearing ' like Islands, are only to be feen; and they have ono Commerce one with another in the inland Places but by Boats; the less also the People fee of their Lands, the more they rejoice. When the Nile is confined within it's Banks, it is poured into the Sea thro' feven Mouths, and every one of them hath the appearance of a Sea, besides

feveral

feveral other small Branches and Canals that are cut from one Shore to another. Moreover it breeds living Creatures, equal in Bulk and Noxiousness to any at Sea, from whence one may ' judge of it's greatness, by it's affording Room to play in, and Sustenance sufficient for such vast Animals. Babillus, the best of Men, and ' skilled in all kinds of Learning, relates, that when he went Governour into Egypt he faw at the Heracleotic Mouth of the Nile (which is 6 the greatest) a Company of Dolphins coming from the Sea, that were met by a Troop of <sup>4</sup> Crocodiles from the River, as it were to give one another Battle. The Dolphins, tho' they are harmless Animals, and do not bite, yet they were too powerful for the Crocodiles, whose Backs are hard and impenetrable even to the Teeth of larger Animals than themselves, but their Bellies and lower Parts are foft and 6 tender; into these the Dolphins, swimming un-6 der Water, thrust their long Spikes, or prickly Fins, which they carry upon their Backs, and wounded them fo that they let out their Bowels, by which feveral of them being killed, the rest turned their Tails and fled. They are Creatures that fly from the bold, and pursue the timoe rous; nor do the Inhabitants of Tentyra overcome them to much by their natural or supee rior Valour, as by their Rashness and Contempt of them; for they follow them of their own Accord, and drive them into the Snares of Nets that are spread for them; tho' a great many of them, that have not Courage enough to purfue e like the rest, are destroyed. Theophrastus relates, that the Nile once brought down Sea-Water; and it is certain that when Cleopatra reigned it did not rife for two Years, viz in the eleventh and twelfth Years of her Reign; which they fay · portended

oportended bad Fortune to two great Persons, viz. to Antony and Cleopatra, who soon after lost their Empires. Callimachus relates, that the Nile in former Ages did not overslow for nine Years.

'NOW I come to enquire into the Caufe of the Nile's overflowing in Summer, and I shall first begin with the Opinions of the Antients. · Anaxagoras was of Opinion, that the melted Snow is poured down, from the Mountains of Ethiopia into the Nile, and makes it overflow; and all the Antients believed this to be the · Cause; Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, have taught the fame. But this is evidently false for feveral Reasons: First Ethiopia is the hottest Country upon Earth, as appears from 6 the tawny or Sun-burnt Colour of the Inhabistants, and the Troglodytes who build their Houses ' under Ground: the Rocks also are as hot as Fire, not only at Noon but even at the close of the Day; the Dust under foot is so hot that Men cannot walk upon it; Silver is unfoldered; the Joints of Images are disjoined, and whatever is laid on them for Ornament dissolves or is peeled off; the South Wind, which blows from these Places, is immoderately hot, and those Creatures, as Serpents, &c. that elsewhere use to hide themselves in the Winter, never withdraw there, but are found in the open Field all the Year. There is no Snow nor heavy Rain falls at Alexandria, which is a great way removed from these immoderate Heats. How therefore should a Country subject to so much Heat, be covered with Snow all the Winter? Some Mountains indeed may have Snow on them there, but no more than the Ridges of Thracia or Caucasus; and the Rivers that flow from these alast, swell in the Spring, and the beginning of Summer.

Summer, and are less again in Winter; because that in the Spring the Snow is washed down by the Rain, and if any is left it is melted by the first Heat of the Sun. Neither the Rhine, · Rhone, Ister, nor Cayster, are subject to this; they only are out a little in Summer, tho' the Snows are very deep on the northern Mountains. The · Phasis and the Borysthenes would also rise at that time, if the Snow could produce great Rivers against Summer. Moreover, if this were the · Cause of the Increase of the Nile, it would flow 6 most at the beginning of Summer; for then the Snow, being large and entire, is melted in e greater Quantities. But the Nile is in it's Grandure four Months, and is then always the fame. If we may believe Thales, the anniversary North Winds refift the Descent of the Nile, and hinder ' it's Course, by driving the Sea in at the Mouths 6 of it's Chanels, fo that being repulfed it runs back upon itself; and is not increased, but because it cannot find a Passage, it overflows and breaks out in every Place where it can make ' it's Way. Euthymenes, of Marseilles, sides with him, and gives this Testimony: I have failed, says he, in the Atlantic Sea; whence the · Nile flows larger as long as the anniversary North Winds blow, because that then the Sea, being urged by the Winds, replenish it's Stream; but when they cease, the Sea grows calm, and the Nile returns with less Force. Besides, the Sea-Water is also sweet, and the Monsters ' in it resemble those of the Nile. But wherefore then, (fay I) if these Winds make the Nile fwell, doth it rife before they begin to blow, ' and continue after they are over? also why doth it not grow greater when they blow stronger? for it is not increased or lessened, when 6 they blow more or less, which it should be, if 6 it

it depended upon their Force. Moreover, these Winds blow against the Shores of Egypt, and the Nile descends the contrary Way against them, 6 but why should it not flow from whence they blow, if it hath it's Origin from them? Besides, it would flow from the Sea pure and green, onot troubled and muddy as it doth now. Add to this, that innumerable Witnesses contradict this Testimony, and tho' Men might lie safely and put any Fables upon us, as long as the · Coasts were unknown; but now the foreign 6 Coasts are frequented by Merchant-Ships, yet onone of them mention the green Colour of the · Nile, or that the Sea hath any other Tafte than · usual; which is also disagreeable to Nature, for the Sun evaporates the lightest and freshest · Particles. Besides, why doth it not increase in Winter, when the Sea is fometimes raifed with greater Winds than these annual ones, which are commonly moderate; and further, if it proceeded from the Atlantic Sea it would cover Egypt at once, and not by Degrees as it does. · Oenopides of Chios fays, that in Winter the Heat is kept under Ground, and therefore Dens and Caverns are then hot, and Fountain-Water is warm also, that the Veins of the Earth are dried up by the internal Heat; but in other Countries the Rivers are replenished with Rain: only the · Nile, which is not supplied with Rain, is lessened in Winter, and increases in Summer, when the 6 interior Parts of the Earth are cold, and the · Fountains are fresh and cool. But if this were true, all the Fountains would increase, and run over in Summer. Besides, the subterraneous Heat is not greater in Winter, tho' Water, Caves, and Wells, are then warm, because they do not admit the external cold Air; fo that they are not absolutely hot, but only exclude the cold: for L. L. 7.

' this Reason they are cold in Summer, because the hot Air is kept from them. Diogenes Apollo-" mates fays, that as the Sun draws Moisture to it, 6 fo the dry and parched Earth draws it from the Sea and other Waters; for it is impossible that one Part of the Earth should be dry, when anobecause it is all over perforated and ' full of Intercourses, thro' which the dry Places draw Moisture from the wet, otherwise they would long fince have been burnt up. For this Reason, the Sun draws the Waters to it, and the e meridian Places that have most need of it; also where the Earth is most dried, it draws most Moisture to it. As in Lamps, the Oil runs towards the Place where it is confumed, fo the Wa-6 ter runs towards that Place where the Earth is e parched up with Heat. From whence therefore 6 should it come but from the cold northern Parts? Does not the Propontis for this Reason constantly "flow into the lower Seas, not as others do by a Flux and Reflux, but by a constant and rapid Course towards the same Point? And unless by these Intercourses, Places that wanted were re-' plenished from those that abounded, the Earth would be foon dried to Dust, or laid under Water. I would willingly afk Diogenes, why, fince the Sea and all Rivers meet together, they are onot larger in all Countries in the Summer? The Sun scorches Egypt more than other Countries, and therefore the Nile increases more: and in 6 other Parts of the Earth there is also some increase of the Rivers. But I ask him, why then ' is there any Part of the Earth without Moisture, 6 fince the hotter it is in any Place the more Moi-' flure it draws from other Countries? And laftly, ' why is the Nile so sweet, if it receives it's Water from the Sea? For no Water is fo fweet as the Water of the Nile.

FROM

FROM this Passage of Seneca we gather the Opinions of the Antients (especially of the Greek Philosophers) about the Cause of the Inundation of the Nile. But none of them are true, because in those times no Body had travelled out of Europe, so far as the Springs of the Nile, or had visited the Nations that border on them, which are very remote from Egypt. But the Matter is now well searched into, and the true Cause is found out, since the Portuguese, and also the English and Dutch, trade with the Nations that border upon these Springs, in the Kingdoms of Congo, Angola, Sosala, Mozambique, &c. (g). From these

(g) Since we feem to have a better Account of the Nile than our Author had in his Time, it will not be amifs to transcribe a New Description of it from Mr Salmon's Present State of all Nations, Vol. 5. Pag. 10, 11.

' The River Nile, or Abancs, which in the Abyssine Lane guage fignifies the Father of " Rivers, hath it's Sources as is e generally held, in 11 or 12 Degr. of northern Latitude in f the Empire of Abysfinia: but · whether the Portuguese Jesuits, ' as is pretended, or any other ' Persons, have discovered the ' very Fountains it issues from, ' is very much questioned. I ' perceive, the Country where ' it rifes, as some of the Natives relate, is covered with vast ' impenetrable Woods. This River runs a Course of about

· Fifteen hundred Miles from

. South to North for the most

Part, and a little below Cairo,
dividing itself into two Bran-

" ches, one inclining to the East

and the other to the West, fall into the Mediterranean; the two Mouths being about a ' Hundred Miles afunder. As ' for any other Branches of this River our Modern Travellers ' take no Notice of them, and probably those that have been ' mentioned by antient Writers ' were only Canals cut from one of these, particularly the Canal which was made to convey the ' Water from the River to Alex-" andria seems in our Maps to be ' laid out for one: However cer-' tain it is, that there are no o- ther Branches navigable at this · Day than those of Damietta, ' and Roffetto. While the River ' is contained within the Bounds ' of the ordinary Chanel, I do not find it is broader at Old Cairo than the Thames at London, and in the dryest Season ' of the Year is fordable in many ' Places. In the upper Parts of ' the Stream there are feven ' Catarasts, where the Water

falls in sheets from a very great

' Height,

these we understand that the Fountains of the Nile are in the great Lake Zaire, fituated in the Foreland of Africa, in the middle between the eastern and western Shore, as was said in the former Chapter. Near to this Lake are several Ridges of Mountains, particularly those called the Mountains of the Moon, and of Setb, between which the Lake lieth as in a Valley among the Mountains. And because these Places lie on the South Side of the Equator, the Motion of the Sun requires that it should be Winter with them when it is Summer with us; but by Reason of their fmall Distance from the Equator, they have little or no cold Weather, but Rain (instead of Snow) for two Hours before and after Noon, every Day, in the Kingdom of Congo. And the Clouds (fcarcely ever permitting them to fee the Sun) feem to cover the Tops of the Mountains, and pour down continual Showers of Rain upon those mountainous Places; which flow from thence like Torrents, and have their Confluence in the Lake Zaire; from whence they are discharged into the Chanel of the Nile, Coanza, Zaire, and other Rivers, which have their Rife from this Lake; but they do not overflow fo much (tho' the Zaire makes an Inundation every Year in the fame manner) as the Nile, because their Chanels are deeper, and after a short Course they exonerate themselves into the Sea; yet all of them increase at the same time, and disgorge a vast quantity of Water into the Ocean. Therefore it

4 Height, causing a prodigious

" Egypt annually."

Noise, but thro' Lower Egypt ' it flides along with a very

<sup>&#</sup>x27; gentle Stream, and Passengers \* are feldom furprized by Tem-

pefts on it. 'Tis observed,

<sup>&#</sup>x27; the Water is very thick and

<sup>&</sup>quot; tnuddy, especially when it is

<sup>&#</sup>x27; fwelled by those heavy Rains

<sup>&#</sup>x27; which conflantly fall within ' the Tropics in the beginning

of the Summer; and these

<sup>&#</sup>x27; are the Occasion of it's over-

<sup>&#</sup>x27; flowing the low Lands of

appears that the Inundation of the Nile is caused by the vast quantities of Water it receives from these continual Rains; but the Caufe of these Rains is unknown, tho' it be likely they proceed from the fame that generates Rain and Snow with us in Winter, which make Inundations not only in the Nile but in our Rivers, when they fall in a greater quantity than ordinary, as every one knows from his own Observations.

THE Time when the Nile begins to overflow, and also when it ends, agrees with this Cause; for the Winter, or rainy Seafon, in Congo and the mountainous Places, begins in our Spring, about the middle of March or April (which is the Time of Autumn to them, viz. from May the Twenty first to June the Twenty first) but is not so vehement as in May, June, and July: in August and Se temper it is also moderate, and ends in the middle of September. The riling of the Nile, as was faid before, begins about the seventeenth of June in this Age. But Herodotus testifies that the Nile, in his Time, was a hundred Days in rifing, and as many in falling; therefore it began to increase fome Weeks fooner, viz. about the first of June, or in May, and before that it must have rained fome Time upon the Mountains, bordering upon the Lake, that is, from March to May or June. But the Reason why it begins to overflow not so foon now as formerly (viz. in the Time of Herodotus, when it feems to have begun in April) is because the Nile, by bringing down Mud and terrestrial Matter, hath made the Ground, which it overflows, higher, and therefore the Chanel is lower and deeper (as well by this as by being scoured by the rapid Current) and contains more Water than formerly, which is the Reason that it doth not fo foon overflow it's Banks. And no doubt but the Nile, in a great many Ages, may not  $Z_3$ overflow

overflow it's Bunks at all; for, by a continual washing down of the Earth, the Country is raised and the Banks and Shores grow higher, and in Time may make a Chanel big enough to contain all the Water of the River when it is at it's Height.

BUT we have faid too much of the Nile, and

more than we intended.

THE fecond of these Rivers, that overslow the adjacent Countries at a certain Time of the Year, is the Niger, a River in Africa, of no less Course that the Nile, tho' not so famous. It overslows at the same Time that the Nile does. Leo Africanus says, it begins to rise on the sisteenth of June, and increases forty Days, and decreases as many. When it is at the Height, People may sail in Boats all over Negroland, tho' not without great Danger.

THE third River that overflows is the Zaire in Congo, as was faid before; and to this may be

referred other Rivers in the same Country.

THE fourth overflowing River, is the Rio de la Plata in Brafil, which waters the adjacent Fields at the same Time with the Nile, as Maffeus obterves.

THE fifth is the Ganges.

THE fixth is the River Indus. These two last pour out their Waters upon the Earth in the rainy Season, viz. in June, July, and August, when the Inhabitants gather the Water into Ponds, and preferve it, that they may be supplied at other Times of the Year, when there is almost no Rain. This Inundation makes the Land very fruitful.

THE feventh includes a great many, viz. four or five that flow from about the Lake Caamay in moderate large Chanels, and exonerate themselves into the Bay of Bengal, flowing thro' Pegu, Siam, and other Places. That River which waters the

Royal

Royal City of Siam is called Menam, and overflows in September, October, and November, at which Time the Fields and Streets in the City are all covered with Water, fo that the People are forced to make use of Boats to fail from one House to another. This also causes an exceeding Fertility.

THE eighth is the River [Mecon] in Cambodia, which overflows in Summer; but is not right placed

in Maps.

THE ninth is the River [Paraguay, which is a Part of the Rio de la Plata] and overflows at the

fame Time with it, and the Nile.

THE tenth includes those in Cormandel in India, which overflow in the rainy Months, and are fed by the Rain that is poured from mount Gaté.

THE eleventh is the Eughrates, which overflows Mesopotamia on some particular Days of the Year.

THE twelfth is the River Sus, or Agus, in Susa; which overflows in Winter.

I do not remember to have read of any other Rivers, besides these, that overflow annually at a stated Period, tho' there are several that do it most Years, as the Oby, the [Hoambo] or Yellow River

in China, &c.

THERE are many Rivers that overflow without keeping a fet Time, and indeed scarce any of the larger Sort but what break over the Banks, at one Time or other, as the Elbe, the Rhine, the Weser, &c. And if it were not for the Depth and Capacity of the Chanel, all great Rivers would annually overflow; for most of them are vastly increafed in the Spring. And it may fo happen, that a River which did not use to overflow may begin to do it yearly, if any Part of the Chanel be raised higher by Sands, or otherwise, so as almost Z 4

to

to equal the Height of the Banks. But to prevent this, Men commonly raise the Banks in pro-

portion.

THE fole Cause of these Deluges is the great quantity of Water which in some Places is drained from the melted Snow, and in most others. proceeds from frequent Rains and violent Showers. Yet it is to be admired why the Indus and the Ganges should not overflow at the same Time that the neighbouring Rivers do, which proceed from the Lake Chaamay; tho' it may be thought perhaps that this difference of Time, is partly owing to the anniversary Rains in the adjacent Places, and partly to the Mountains that furround the Sources or Spring-Heads, as we faid of the Nile; but to avoid Prolixity, we shall forbear examining every The River [Aifne] near Paris, in Particular. France, fometimes fwells fo much, without any more Rain than ordinary, as to overflow the Suburbs of St Marcellus, and do a great deal of Damage.

THE Reason why almost all these Deluges make the Fields fertile, is because the Water that overflows them is either melted Snow or Rain, which being light and spirituous, and containing fulphureous Matter mixed with it in the Air, is more prevalent to make the Ground fruitful, and also more wholesome than mineral Water; and that Rain-Water contains fuch Sulphur and Spirit, appears, 1. From the Worms that are bred in it. 2. From it's quick Putrefaction. 3. From the chemical Distillation of it. Yet there are some Rivers that do not make the Land fruitful by their Inundation but rather barren, as the Loire in France; whilst the Seyne, with it's fat and fost Waters,

makes the Land ferrile.

## PROPOSITION XXI.

To explain how Springs break out of the Earth.

WE have shewed in the fourth Proposition, whence the Water proceeds that flows out at Fountains; we now come to enquire how the Collections of Waters are made to spring out of the Earth, which one would think could not be done without a violent Perforation of the Ground. But there are various Caufes that make way for a Spring: 1. If there be a Cavity, or Receptacle, in any Place, the Water, of it's own Nature, and without any other Caufe, will diftil and drain into it, and, in process of Time, by constantly pervading the Crannies and Passages, will make them larger, 'till at last the Cavity be full, and overflow into a Rivulet; and the same may happen if there is no Receptacle, if the Spring be upon the Side of a Mountain, or even upon the Top of it. For this Cause there are several Springs found in Woods, and shady Places, where the Rain-Water moistens the Earth; and because it is not fo foon evaporated by the Heat of the Sun, or a free Air, it draws to it by degrees the fecret Water of a future Fountain. 2. The Spirits that are mixed with the Waters yet in the Earth, and the Rarefaction of them whereby they take up a larger Space, often remove the Earth, and make way for Fountains; for Water is more spirituous while it is hid under Ground: subterraneous Fires also contribute much to it's Rarefaction. 3. Fountains are brought to Light by Showers of Rain, which pervade the Pores of the Earth, and enlarge them, and by mixing with the fubterraneous Water, draws it to a Head, by a mutual Coherence or Attraction. 4. Sometimes Fountains

tains are opened by Earthquakes; as the River Ladon which run formerly between Helis and Megalopolis was disclosed by an Earthquake. 5. Sometimes they are discovered, by chance, as the Ground is digging. 6. Several have been discovered by Animals rooting up the Earth with their Snouts. Thus the first of the Salt-Springs in Lunenburg was discovered by a Hog's rooting up the Ground, and making a Gutter, into which the Water spouted up, and filled it, and he (according to the nature of them) laid himself down in the Water; when he had got up again, and the Sun had fufficiently dried his Back, fome body discovered a certain whiteness upon him, which, being more narrowly observed, they found to be white Salt; then they fought for the Place where he had laid down, and found it to be a Spring, producing Salt; which made them begin to feek for more, and they foon discovered several others. From this the Town acquired all it's Riches and Splendor, and to this very Day there is kept in the Stadt-house of Lunenburg the same Hog quartered and fmoaked hanging upon a Beam, whose Parts are grown fo thin, by length of Time, that they seem to be only Pieces of Leather.

### PROPOSITION XXII.

A Place being given in the Earth, to know if a Fountain or Well may be made in it.

VITRUVIUS in his Architecture (Book viii. eap. 1.) learnedly assigns the Marks by which we may know this, from whom Pliny and Palladio have borrowed what they wrote upon this Subject. Besonus hath added to it in his Book published the same Year 1569. We shall here give Vitruvius's own Words.

CHAP. 16. of Universal Geography. 347 ' IF (fays he) your Fountains do not flow, you are to feek out their fubterraneous Feeders, and collect their Waters together, which are thus to be found. A little before Sun-rifing, lie with ' your Face close to the Earth, in those Places where the Water is fought for, and supporting your Face with your Chin upon the Ground, look round the Country; for by this means the Sight, being no ' higher than it ought to be, will not mistake, but · fee as much of the Country as is upon the fame ' level; then where you observe the Vapours to vibrate backwards and forwards, and to rife up ' into the Air, there you may dig; for this Sign is ' never observed in a dry Place. Moreover, they ' that fearch after Water, ought to confider the 6 Soil, for there are different Sorts of Water in 6 different Soils. In chalky Ground the Water is fmall and weak, of no great Depth; and not of ' the sweetest Taste; in loose gravelly Ground it ' is also weak, and if it be drawn from a great Way under Ground, it is muddy and bitter; in black Ground, there are found several small Drains and Runnels, the Water of which, being collected into Ponds, made in firm and folid Ground, has an excellent Taste; in fandy Ground, or among Grit, there is moderate Water, but no Weins of it found, yet what there is in it is very ' good; in hard gravelly Ground, mixed with Par-' ticles of Coal, you are fure to find excellent, well tasted, Water; in red stony Ground there is e plenty of good Water, if it do not fink into

oplenty of good Water, if it do not fink into the Interffices and waste away the Stones; at the roots of Mountains, and among Flint Stones, there is the coldest and most wholsome Water, and the greatest Plenty of it; but Springs that are found in low champain Ground, are falt, there was and unwholesome, unless they

heavy, warm, and unwholefome; unless they come in subterraneous Passages from the Moun-

ctains,

348 The Absolute Part SECT. IV. tains, and break out in a part of the Plain that is well shaded with Trees, for then they excel the Mountain Springs in fweetnefs. There ' are feveral other Signs to find Water by, befides those already mentioned; as if there be found growing in any Place, slender Bull-rushes, wild Willows, Alder Trees, Agnus castus, Reeds, Ivy, or the like, which cannot grow or be nourished without moisture (tho' these also use to spring up in Ditches, into which the Rain-Water is drained from the adjacent Fields in Winter, and 6 is there preferved longer than ordinary, but you 6 must not trust to such Places) only in those 6 Countries or Places which have no Ditches, and where these Signs appear growing naturally,Water may be sought for. And in those Countries where there are no fuch Signs; to find the Water, let there be dug a Place about three Foot broad every way, and no lefs than five Foot deep, and let there be placed in it, about Sun-fet, a brafs or pewter Difh or Bafon (which is at hand) upfide downwards, befmeared all o-· ver on the infide with Oil; let also the top of the Place be covered with Leaves or Reeds · cast upon the Earth; the next Day let it be o-' pened, and if there be Drops, or a Sweating, in the Vessel, there is certainly Water there. Also if there be put in the same Place a Vessel made of Chalk not boiled, the Veffel will be dif-6 folved, or at least very moist if there be Water there; if a Fleece of Wool be placed there over Night, and if the next Morning Water e may be wrung out of it, it is a Sign that there

' is plenty of Water in that Place. If a trimmed

Lamp, full of Oil and kindled, be put covered into that Place, and the Oil is not spent the

e next Day, but some Relicks both of the Oil and the Wick fomething moist is left, it shews that

6 there

CHAP. 16. of Universal Geography. there is Water there; because all Heat draws moisture to it. If a Fire be made there, and the Earth be throughly warmed and burnt, and a · Cloud of Vapours arise, that Place affords Water. When these Things are tried, and the forementioned Signs appear, a Well may be funk there, and as foon as Water is found, Chanels e may be dug round about to bring it to a Head. But these are to be sought for chiefly in Mountains and northern Countries, where the Water is more pleafant, wholefome, and plentiful; for they are turned from the Course of the Sun, and are frequently covered with Woods and Trees, and the Mountains themselves afford cool Shades, 6 fo that the direct Rays of the Sun do not reach the Earth to draw out it's moisture. The Val-· lies between the Mountains also receive a greater ' share of the Showers, and the Snow is longer preferved under the shade of Woods and Mountains; which being melted, pervades the Pores and Veins of the Earth, and is carried to the very Roots of the Mountains; where it feeds fome Fountain or other with Water. But, on the contrary, in e plain champain Countries, they have feldom · plenty of Water, and if they have, their Springs cannot be sweet, because the vehement Heat of the Sun, being uninterrupted by any Shade, fucks up the moisture; and if there be any fine, light, and wholesome, Water above Ground it is evaoporated by the Heat of the Air, and the hard, heavy, and unwholesome Particles are only left in these Fountains.

BUT at this Day, without regarding any Signs, they dig up the Ground sometimes to a great Depth. where there are, for the most part, found Veins of Water, or Spring-heads, or Receptacles of Water, or subterraneous Rivers.

OTHERS superstitiously take the Branch of a Hazle-Tree, cut down at certain Aspects of the Planets, and pretend to know thereby where Water lies concealed.

## PROPOSITION XXIII.

To make a Well or Fountain in a given Place, if it be possible.

LET us again use the Words of Vitruvius, because he was a Person well versed in these Affairs; and I myfelf never practifed any fuch Bulinefs.

· REASON (fays he in Chapter vii.) must not be despised in digging of Wells; and the nature of Things is to be diligently fearched into, because the Earth hath several Sorts of Matter in it, and is (as all other Things are) compo-· fed of four Principles, of which the Earthy Part itself is one; and Moisture, from whence Founctains proceed, is another: also Fire and Heat, from whence proceed Sulphur, Alum, and Bitumen, and the thick Spirits of Air, which e pervading the Pores, Interstices, and Fiffures of the Earth, gather to the Place where the Well s is funk, and fend the natural Vapour they bring along with them into the Nostrils, and stop the 6 Motion of the animal Spirits, fo that unless they can quickly get out they immediately e perish. But to prevent this, they should let down a lighted Candle, which if it continue burning, there is no danger in going down; but if it be put out, by the strength of the ' Vapour, then they must dig in other Places e near this Shaft, and make Tubes (that the Earth may have Nostrils as it were) to discharge the onoxious Vapours out of it's Bowels. When thefe

CHAP. 16. of Universal Geography. 351

are finished, and you are come to Water, let the Well be built round within, but not so as to stop the Veins from running; but if the Earth be hard, and the Veins not quite at the Bottom. then must Plaister-work be made to receive the · Water from the Ledges and upper Places. To · make your Plaister durable, let the finest and hardest Sand be got, and a certain Weight of · Flint broken to powder; mix the Sand with the best quick Lime, two Parts of the one to five of the other, and add to this the Cement or Powder; 6 with which plaister the Sides of the Well to the intended Depth, and fasten it with Beams of Wood nailed into it, left it should fall in. This being done let the Earth in the Bottom be clean taken out as far as the Plaister-work goes, and when it is levelled, ram the fame fort of Plaister upon it, to what thickness you please. If this Work be repeated over and over, and the Plaifter laid on thick, the Water, by being strained ' thro' it, will be more refined and made more wholesome; for the Mud by it's subsiding will ' make the Water clearer; and it will keep it's Faste without any noisome Smell; otherwise it

# PROPOSITION XXIV.

6 may be needful to add Salt to refine it.

To know whether Fountain-Water be wholesome.

OF this Vitruvius writes thus (Book viii. Chap. v.) The Proof or Trial of Fountains is to be made in this manner. If they bubble out of the Earth and flow, let the Inhabitants that live near the Fountain-Heads be observed, and if they have ftrong Constitutions and healthy Bodies, are well coloured, without difforted Limbs or blear Eyes,

Eyes, the Waters are certainly good. In like
manner if a Well be new funk, take fome of the
Water and sprinkle it upon a Vessel made of the

best Brass, and if it leave no Spots or Stains, it is the best of Water. Let it also be boiled in a

brazen Kettle, and if, after it is fettled and poured out, there be no Sediment of Sand or Slime

6 at the Bottom, the Water is certainly good. If 6 Pease or Beans be quickly boiled soft in it, it is a

Sign the Water is good and wholesome. Likewise if it appear clear and transparent in the Foun-

tain, and no Moss or Bull-rushes grow in any Place where it flows, also if the Places be no way corrupted with Filth, but are of a fine fort

of Earth; these are all Signs that it is light and

wholesome Water.

# PROPOSITION XXV.

To make an artificial Fountain in any Place if it be possible.

A Fountain is faid to be artificial or only apparent, when it is fed by a subterraneous Chanel conveying Water from a higher Place; as we shewed in *Proposition* V. Such an one as this may be made, if there is any Lake, River, or Fountain near, viz. by cutting a Chanel under Ground from the Place proposed to one of these, whereby to convey the Water; as we shall shew in the next Proposition.

# PROPOSITION XXVI.

To bring a River from a given Fountain, or River, to a place appointed.

IF the Fountain or River is higher than the proposed Place, it will be easily done by those Instruments that are used for levelling Places, to convey Water from a certain Height to fuch or fuch a Level. Let there be therefore a Chanel cut from the Fountain or River to the Place proposed, and let it incline, or be more or less levelled, according as you would have the Water to run flow or swift, for you are not stinted by this Problem. To make Aqueducts that will convey Water with a moderate Celerity, they commonly depress the Chanel no less than half a Foot in five hundred, otherwise the Water will run too flow, or not at all. Vitruvius requires no less than half a Foot in one hundred and no more than a Foot, or at most a Foot and a half, otherwise the Course will be too swift and rapid: But if the Fountain be not higher than the given Place, you must use Engines for raising the Water, for the making of which you must consult Mechanics: and other things are to be considered in this Affair. Some of the French write, that the River Seine, in running from the Arfenal at Paris to the royal Gardens of the Tuilleries, which is five hundred Fathoms, falls scarce one Foot; but it is to be confidered that in some Parts of the Chanel there is no need of fo great an Inclination, the Water having acquired fome Force already. By this Problem Rivers are also joined, and Canals cut from one to another for the Use of Navigation: as from the Tanais [or Don] into the Wolga, and VOL. I. Aa

from the Hoambo, or Yellow River, to the [Kiam or] Blue River in China, &c.

### PROPOSITION XXVII.

Some Rivers are remarkable for their long Courses, others for their Breadth, some are samous for their Swiftness; and others for the peculiar Nature of the Water they carry, and some again for two or more of these Properties.

THIS Proposition requires no Proof. We need only enumerate those of the larger sort, viz. that have a long Course, and are samous for their Breadth: of such there are but sixteen hitherto discovered. The Nile, Oby, Jenisa, [the River of the Amazons], Rio de la Plata, Parana, Miary, Oroonoque, Ganges, Danube (b), St Lawrence in Canada, Niger in Africa, Nubia, Wolga, the blue and the yellow River in China.

THOSE famous for Breadth, tho' not of so long a Course, are about twenty. The Indus, Zaire, Coanza, these from the Lake Chaamay, the Euphrates, Tanais, Petzora, [Maia] Tobol, and Yrtisch in Siberia, St Esprit in Africa, Amana in the American Castile, Magdalen, Julian in Chica, St Jaques in Peru, the Rhine, Elbe, Maes, Borysthenes, and

Totonteac in New-Britain.

WE shall here only trace the Course of ten of the largest Rivers, leaving the more accurate Explication of them and others to special Geography.

THE Nile, Niger, and Ganges, run almost in a strait Course, the rest have many and large Cur-

vatures.

I. THE Nile has it's Fountain in the Lake Zaire, in fix Degrees of South Latitude, and it's

Mouth

<sup>(</sup>b) The Danube is said to Miles in a strait Line, from perform a Course of above 1500 it's Rise to it's Fall.

Mouth in thirty one Degrees of North. It flows from South to North, and is in some Places very broad; but in others narrow, and hath two great Cataracts. The length of it's Course is about fix hundred and thirty German Miles, or Two thoufand five hundred and twenty Italian; which we may reckon to be Three thousand for it's Curva-

tures. It overflows every Year.

2. THE Niger (i), a River in Africa, (sometimes called Senegal) arises from a Lake of the same Name, in 5 Degr. of North Latitude. Some have formerly thought it to proceed from the Nile by a fubterraneous Passage, because it annually overflows at the fame Time with the Nile. One of it's Mouths is in 11 Degr. of Latitude, but the furtheft is 15 Degr. diftant from the Equator. It flows from East to West, and in one Place hides itself under Ground, and again emerges. It's Course is about 600 German Miles, but less if you neglect it's greatest Curvatures, and more if you include them.

3. THE Ganges, in Afia, has it's remote, and not well known, Fountain a great way up in Tartary; some place it in 35 Degr. of North Latitude, and others further North. It has it's Mouth in the

(i) De l'Isle in his Maps makes the River Niger to lofe it's Name at the Lake de Guarde, and from thence to the Sea which in a strait Line is 700 British Miles, is called Senegal; and makes the River Gambia to have no Communication with the Niger; but we have no fufficient Proof that there is any fuch River as the Niger: But Mr Snow, late Governour of Fames Fort on Gambia River, informs me, that the Senegal hath not fo long Course as is represented

in those Maps; and that it is a barr'd River, and capable of admitting nothing larger than Barks up to the French Settlements, above which, only flatbottom'd Boats can float fo high as Gallum: Whereas the Gambia is navigable for Ships of any Burthen about 50 Leagues above the English Settlements, and for Vessels of 100 Ton up to Barraconda, and fomething higher, (for fo far the Tide prevails) and is near 150 Leagues above James Fort. Templeman's Survey.

Aa

Latitude

Latitude of 22 Degr. and flows from North to South. It's Course is about 300 German Miles, and

every Year it overflows it's Banks.

4. THE Oby, a great and every where broad River in Afia, has it's Fountain in the Lake Kan Kisan, among the Mountains of Tartary, in the Latitude of forty eight Degrees North. It has it's Mouth in fixty nine Degrees of Latitude, and runs a Course of about four hundred German Miles, without it's Curvatures. It divides itself in Siberia, into two Branches, or rather fends forth an Arm which makes a Curvature, and returns to it again, and fo forms an Island, in which there is a City built by the Muscovites and Siberians, called Jorgoet.

5. THE Jenisa, a River in Asia, hitherto unknown to our Geographers, but taken Notice of by the Muscovites. It is faid to be much greater than the Oby, from which it is distant eastward, about ten Week's Journey, towards Tartary. There is a Range of Mountains runs for a great Way along it's eaftern Banks; and the western Shore is inhabited by the [Ton-Guissins]. It overflows the western Shore feventy German Miles every Year in the Spring, when the Inhabitants are forced to betake themselves, with their Cattle and Tents, into the Mountains on the eastern Shore. Where it begins and ends is not known, but it is thought to run as long a Course as the Oby.

6. [THE Maia or Lena] is far distant from the Jenisa eastward. The eastern Branches are said to proceed from the Borders of China, and the Kingdom of Cathaia; if there be such a Place. It's Fountain and Mouth are unknown; and it is not reckoned one of the largest fort of Rivers; only we are willing to mention it here, because it has not been taken notice of by any Geographer, no

more than the Jenisa and Irtisch.

7. THE River of the Amazons, (or Rio de Orellana from Francisco Orelli) in America, is thought to be one of the greatest Rivers upon Earth. It's Fountain is in the Province of Quito in the Kingdom of Peru, near the Equator, and it's Mouth, being 15 Leagues broad, is in 2 Degr. of South Latitude. It is faid to run a Course of 1500 Spanish Leagues, by reason of it's great number of Windings, tho' it extends not above 700 in a strait Line. Some confound this with, or will have it to be, a Branch of the Miary. It is in some Places sour or five Leagues broad, but it receives it's Water not fo much from Fountains, as from the Rains that fall upon the Mountains of Peru; and therefore is nothing nigh fo broad in the dry Seafons. This makes Travellers disagree in their Descriptions of it.

8. THE River of Plate, Argyropotamus, or Rio de la Plata, in Brafil, hath it's Fountain in the Lake Xarayes, and receives a Branch from about Potofi, and it's Mouth in 37 Degr. of South Latitude, which is faid to be twenty Leagues broad; but when it overflows, it has a great many Mouths, which are accounted but as one; for at other times it hath not much Water in it. The Inhabitants call it Paranaguafa, i. e. The River like a Sea, as some observe.

9. THE Omarânan is likewise a River of Brafil, slowing thro' a long Tract from the Mountains of Peru. These three great Rivers of Brasil, viz. the Orellana, the Rio de la Plata, and the Omarânan, meet in certain mediterranean Parts of Brasil, so as to form Lakes, from which they again rise separate.

to. THE River of St Lawrence flows between Canada and New-Holland, in North America, and hath it's Fountain in the Lake [Frontenac or] Iro-

A a 3 quois

358 The Absolute Part SECT. IV. quois. It's Course is no less than 600 German Miles.

# PROPOSITION XXVIII.

There are Whirlpools and deep Pits found in some Rivers.

THUS in the River Soame in Picardy, between Amiens and Abbeville, there is a blind Whirlpool, into which the Water rushes with such Violence, that it's clashing may be heard several Miles off. There are many others of this kind.

## PROPOSITION XXIX.

River Water is lighter than Sea Water.

THE Reason is, because Sea Water hath much Salt in it. From whence it happens, that some things sink to the bottom in Rivers that floated upon the Sea; as very often heavy loaded Vessels, which were born up at Sea, sink in the Harbour. However, the Proportion between them is various, and they both differ in Weight in divers Places. We commonly say, they are as 46 to 45, i. e. 46 measured Ounces of River Water equiponderate 45 of Sea Water.



#### CHAP. XVII.

Of Mineral Waters, bot Baths, and Spares.

Bodies, or Waters, whose peculiar Properties seem surprising, it has given Occasion to Geographers to treat thereof; but all of them hitherto, except a bare Recital of their Names, and a short Account of some of the most extraordinary Fountains, have added nothing to give us an Insight into their Cause. But we shall here treat of them more fully, and explain their Causes, and also set them in a clearer Light.

#### PROPOSITION I.

No Water is pure and elementary; but contains other Particles mixed with it, such as are found in terrestrial Bodies; and these are not only earthy, but also of various other kinds, as Oil, Spirits, &c. But that is called Mineral Water which contains so many of these Particles different from the Nature of Water itself, that from them it acquires such remarkable Properties, as affect our Senses, and makes us take notice of it.

Aa4

THE

THE Truth of this Proposition is apparent from Experience, and is proved as well from the different Taftes of the Waters as from Distillation; and all Naturalists agree that there is no such thing in Nature as pure or fimple Water, or any other Element separated from others, because of the constant and various Agitation of the Particles of Bodies. But in mineral Waters (that we may come closer to our Subject) the cause of this Mixture is their receiving the spirituous Particles of heterogeneous Bodies; for Rain and the very Air itself that covers the Water, is impregnated with many different forts of Particles.

ALL Waters therefore have a Mixture of Particles of another Nature, tho' all have not the fame Quantity of them; and tho' there flow into the Rhine, the Danube, and the Elbe, and into all great Rivers, feveral Rivulets impregnated with mineral Particles in such Quantities as to affect the Senfes; yet because, besides these, there are many other Brooks that flow into the fame Rivers which are not impregnated with a fenfible Quantity of heterogeneous Particles; and because most of their Water proceeds from Rain and Dew, therefore these heterogeneous Particles are not eafily discovered in such great Rivers, tho' they are received by them; but require to be separated by Art, if we would know their Taste and Qualities. We therefore call that mineral Water which hath fome remarkable Property more than what is obferved in common Water, or hath so large a Mixture of heterogeneous Particles as fenfibly to alter it's Tafte.

### PROPOSITION II.

Mineral Waters are of three kinds.

SOME are corporeal, (we want a better Word for it) others fpirituous, and the rest both corporeal and spirituous. Those we call corporeal mineral Waters do contain fixed and folid Particles of Minerals and Fossils, which can be separated from the Water, and feen with the naked Eye; and fuch as these are of two forts: Some carry large Particles of Minerals and Fossils, which may be perceived with little or no trouble in the Water itself; nor are they properly speaking mixed with the Water: Such as these we treated of in the foregoing Chapter, and have in them Grains of Gold, Silver, &c. and therefore are called auriferous, argentiferous, &c. But such are not properly called mineral Waters, because they have not these Particles mixed with them, but separate; neither do they receive any Property or Quality from them: yet because Men admire such Rivers and their Explication hath a great Affinity with the Description of mineral Waters properly fo called, we thought fit to mention them under the same Head; to which may be added bituminous Fountains, &c.

BUT corporeal mineral Waters are more properly such as indeed contain solid Particles of Fossils, but so small and minute that they are entirely mixed, and cannot quickly be distinguished by the Sight, unless they are made to subside by Art, or a long space of Time; or by Concretion are brought to a visible Mass, such as Salt and sulphureous Fountains, &c. and chemical Waters in which

Metals are disfolved.

SPIRITUOUS Waters are those that contain only a volatile Spirit, fuch as is found in Minerals; but have no fixed Particles in them; and therefore their Composition can never be made visible.

WE call those Waters both corporeal and spirituous, which contain not only fixed and folid Particles of Minerals, but also volatile and spirituous: Of all which we shall give Examples in the following Propositions.

# PROPOSITION III.

To explain bow mineral Waters are generated.

- 1. IF the Water be carried under Ground with a rapid Course among metalline and mineral Earth, which is eafily loofened, it is evident that it washes Particles from it, and may carry along with it Grains of these Minerals; and this is the Generation of these corporeal mineral Waters that hold Grains in rhem.
- 2. IF the Minerals are imperfect and not fo closely joined, as Vitriol, Sulphur, &c. or even Salt, which of their own Nature easily mix with Water; and if a Rivulet, or Gut of Water, runs thro' Beds or Mines of fuch Minerals, or be strained thro' them (without a Chanel or Duct in fuch a Manner as we explained in Proposition V. of the preceding Chapter) the Water when it breaks out at the Fountain will have small Particles of these Minerals mixed with it, and will be corporeal mineral Water, of a fubtile Composition, according to the smallness of the Atoms. Now whether the Water can in like manner dissolve or unite with itself the Particles of Metals, is to be questioned, because they are hard and solid, and therefore are not casily blended with Water. I acknowledge

CHAP. 17. of Universal Geography. 363

acknowledge this may be done, but not with simple or common Water, but by a vitriolic and falt spirituous Water, like the Aqua Fortis of the Chemists; for as Aqua Fortis dissolves Metals into Atoms, and eafily unites them with itself, fo that they do not subside at the Bottom, unless they be separated by Art: in like manner when such Water runs thro' a metallic Earth, it may dissolve the metalline Particles and unite them with itself; and thus are the corporeal mineral Waters of the fecond

Sort, accounted for and explained.

3. BEFORE Metals are formed in the Bowels of the Earth, Steams and Vapours are condensed about the extant Corners of the Rocks, to which they stick fast; being at first but of a fost Substance, though they are afterwards hardened by degrees; if therefore the Water should run or gleet thro' the Places where fuch Vapours are in Commotion, it is impregnated with them; and thus spirituous mineral, and metalline, Waters are produced. Imperfect Minerals also make mineral Waters of their own Nature, after another Method; viz. when, being heated by a fubterraneous, or their own proper, heat, they fend forth Spirits and Vapours, as Sulphur, Vitriol, Salt, Coal, &c. And fuch Fumes and Exhalations are always ftirred up where there are fuch Minerals; among which the permeating Water is impregnated with that Spirit. Some think these spirituous Waters may be generated by being only carried thro' a metallic Earth, or by having their Receptacles in it, or in their Mines; but it is found to the contrary by Experience, that Water receives no Quality from Metals and Minerals, tho' they should be immersed in it a great many Years. Therefore, rejecting this Opinion, it is most reasonable to suppose, that these Waters receive a certain Spi-Fit, from the Seeds of Metals, or first Principles,

as we may call them; or we may fay that such Waters are impregnated with the subtile Spirits of Vitriol, Salt, &c. by the help of which a Spirit is extracted from hard Metals; but I do not lay so great Stress upon this latter cause; for a Question will arise again about the Generation of this spirituous, mineral, vitriolic, and salt Water.

FROM these together it appears, how mineral Waters, both corporeal and spirituous, are ge-

nerated.

# PROPOSITION IV.

There are innumerable Kinds of mineral Waters, according to the Variety and Diversity of the Particles, they receive from different Minerals.

WE have shewed and explained in the former Proposition, how mineral Waters receive these Particles (from which their extraordinary Qualities arise) from Minerals, or Fossils. Now because there are divers Kinds of Minerals, it hence follows, that mineral Waters are various, and almost infinitely different in their Qualities; not consisting of one kind of Water impregnated with only one fort of Mineral, but of various Kinds, mixed with various Sorts. Wherefore mineral Waters are either simple or mixed; and the Mixed have two, three, four, or more, forts of Fossils in them.

HENCE are, 1. Metallic Waters, as of Gold,

Silver, Copper, Tin, Lead, Iron, &c.

2. SALT Waters, as of common Salt, Nitre, Alum, Vitriol, &c.

3. BITUMINOUS Waters, fulphureous,

antimonial, as of Coal, Ambergris, &c.

4. WATERS proceeding from various kinds of Earth and Stones, viz. Limestone Waters, (which receive

CHAP. 17. of Universal Geography. 365 receive Particles of Lime-Stones) Chalk, Oker, Cinnabar, Marble, Alabaster, &c.

5. MERCURIAL Waters, &c. ALL these kinds of Waters are to be understood three Ways, as was faid in the second Proposition (as all other mineral Waters are), viz. 1. Some of them are corporeal, either fenfibly fo, or by a refined and fubtile Commixture. 2. Others are spirituous. 3. Others are both corporeal and spirituous. These Differences may be applied to the feveral Kinds of mineral Waters. For Example: There are Golden Waters which are, 1. Corporeal, that carry Grains of Gold, of fuch Magnitude, that with small Trouble they are discernable, by reason of their gross or course Mixture. 2. Corporeal, that carry very minute Particles of Gold, well mixed with them; and tho' the fmallest Particles of Gold, do of their own Nature fink to the bottom in Water, yet that there are such, appears from the Aqua Regia of the Chemists, in which Gold is dissolved into Atoms; but this Aqua Regia is not a Simple Water, neither does any Water carry Atoms of Gold in it, unless it be before impregnated with other mineral Particles. 3. Spirituous golden Waters, that have engendered a Spirit and Vapour in the Earth from which Gold is produced. 4. Golden Waters that are both corporeal and spirituous, viz. that have both Atoms of Gold, and the Spirit that produces it.

THUS we are to apply this four-fold Variety to all forts of mineral Waters, whether simple or mix'd (from whence innumerable Species are produced; for either the Bodies of Fossils, or their Spirits, or the Body of one Fossil with the Spirit of another, are mixed or engendered in the Water): so Leaden Waters are of sour kinds, viz. 1. Visibly corporeal. 2. Corporeal by a subtile Mixture. 3. Tincured by the spirit of Lead. 4. Impregnated both

with the Body and Spirit of Lead. And these four Participations of Minerals are to be applied to mercurial Waters, &c. and more especially to falt, vitriolic, and fulphureous Waters, because in these, Nature itself displays a four-fold Variety; tho' it is to be doubted, whether there be corporeal Particles of a fubtile Grain in metalline Waters. Spirituous metallic Waters are also very rare; but the Water of Salt, Sulphur, &c. both corporeal and spirituous is very common, because these Fossils are found in more Places of the Earth, and in greater Plenty, and their Particles are also sooner dashed to Atoms, and dissolved by the Water; beside they frequently emit Steams and Vapours.

LET us explain this four-fold Variety of Par-

ticipation by one Example of Gold.

i. IN the preceding Chapter, Proposition xvi, we enumerated those Rivers that carry Grains of Gold, and with this Treasure glad the Hearts of the Natives upon their Banks; as in the County of Tyrol, and the neighbouring Places, there are feveral fuch; and as we faid before, the Rhine, the Elbe, the Danube, and feveral other great Rivers, carry Grains of Gold in feveral Places (and alfo other Metals and Minerals) which they receive from auriferous Rivulets. The Rhine carries Grains of Gold, mixed with Clay and Sand, in many Places, but especially at these, viz. 1. Near Coire, in the Grisons Country. 2. At Mayenfield. 3. At Eglisau. 4. At Sokinge. 5. At the Town of Augst, not far from Basil. 6. At Newburg. 7. At Seliz. 8. At Worms. 9. At Mentz. 10. At Bacherach, 11. At Bon, &c. The auriferous Rivulets, which the Rhine receives, the Reader may see in Thurnheuserus; and also those that run into the Danube, and Elbe. Small Grains of Gold are found in the Elbe in these Places: 1. At Lotomeritz in Bohemia. 2. At Purn. 3. At Dresden in Meisen. 4. At Torgaw. 5. At

CHAP. 17. of Universal Geography. 367

5. At Magdeburg. 6. At Lavenburgh Tower, five Miles from Hamburgh. Several other auriferous Rivers are given an Account of in the forecited Book of Thurnbeuserus; and such as carry other Metals and Minerals. And these are auriferous corporeal Waters, of the first kind, carrying visible Grains, which are not so properly called Mineral or Golden Waters, because the Gold Grains are not mixed with the Water, but only carried in it by it's rapid Motion; the Water itself being un-

compounded with it.

2. CORPOREAL Golden Waters of fine Mixture, whose Atoms are united with the Atoms of Gold, like the Aqua Regia of the Chemists, which dissolves Gold, and unites it by Atoms to itself. For since it is possible that there may be in Nature such Water as this of the Chemists, which may run thro' Golden Earth, or Gold Mines, it is reasonable to suppose, that it eats out Particles and dissolves them into Atoms, and unites them to itself; and from this Cause proceed those (or such like) Golden Rivulets as are described by Thurnheuserus, in his Account of the Danube, Rhine, &c.

3. SPIRITUOUS Golden Waters are but very few, some of which perhaps are enumerated among the rest by Thurnheuserus; but these are not so much known or regarded, because Golden Earth and Gold Mines are very scarce; besides where there are such Mines, there is such a Mixture of other Minerals, that they are not perceptible. Nevertheless there are some Rivulets in the high Alps of Bohemia, that are said to participate of these Golden Spirits, as in the Fiechtelberg Mountains in Silesia. The Hot Baths also in the Bishopric of Coire, are believed to be impregnated with this kind of Spirit, yet because of the Mixture of other Mine-

rals in a greater Quantity, this quality is rendered

less perceptible.

4. GOLDEN Waters that carry both the Atoms, and Spirit of Gold, are fome of those Rivulets mentioned by the above named Thurnbeuserus.

LET us also give an example of falt Waters.

1. CORPOREAL falt Water, which carry gross and undigested Particles of Salt, are found in many Places, and fufficiently known; as Fountains, whose Waters produce Salt; and Sea-Water

from which Salt is extracted by boiling.

2. SUBTLE corporeal falt Waters, which contain Salt dissolved into the minutest Atoms, are fuch as are very falt, and yet very clear, as many falt Fountains are, and Sea-Water that is thin and fine; tho' there is a great Difference in this subtile Mixture. Hereto may be referred the Urine of all Animals.

- 3. SPIRITUOUS falt Waters, which do not contain the Particles of Salt, but only the Spirit of it, are of fuch a Nature, that if feveral Tuns be ever fo much boiled, they will not yield any There are a great many of these in Germany, and other Places, but they are feldom without Mixture.
- 4. CORPOREAL and spirituous salt Waters, which contain the Particles and Spirit of Salt. Almost all corporeal Waters have some small Portion of faline Spirits in them, but few of them any Quantity. Thus the Fountains about the City Saltzinge, near the Rhine, are falter than other falt Springs, and yet yield less Salt, because their sharp and brackish Taste is heightened by a Spirit or volatile Salt, which flies away in the boiling.

HENCE it appears how this four-fold Variety of Participation is to be applied to the feveCHAP. 17. of Universal Geography. 369 ral kinds of mineral Waters, viz. to vitriolic, Alum, and Lead Waters, &c.

## PROPOSITION V.

To enumerate the most remarkable Varieties of mineral Waters.

IN the foregoing Propositions, we have explained the Kinds and Differences of mineral Waters, taken from their Nature, which confist in having mineral Particles in them, which they carry or with which they are impregnated; but because these Varieties are not so perceptible to the Senses, and there are feveral Mixtures of Minerals that cause various, and almost unaccountable, Properties in the Waters, therefore they are not fo eafily known and diftinguished by the Vulgar; for Waters (and other Bodies) become famous among Mankind, and receive their Names from their manifest Qualities which strike and affect the Senses, whose Caufe and Explication is to be deduced from their Composition and Participation. There are therefore ten Species of Waters, or Liquids, that flow out of the Ground, which are commonly taken Notice of by the Vulgar. 1. Acid Waters. 2. Bitter. 3. Hot. 4. Very cold. 5. Fat and oily. 6. Poifonous or deadly. 7. Coloured. 8. Boiling. 9. Waters that harden Bodies, change their Colour, or otherwise alter them. 10. Saline. 11. To these may be added, fuch as are invested with other uncommon Properties. All kinds of Waters described by Authors, may be referred to one or other of these Heads. We shall here briefly explain their Generation and Differences; and give some Examples.

VOL, I.

## PROPOSITION VI.

To explain the Origin, or Composition, of acid Waters, their Difference and real Species.

THESE four Waters, called by the Germans Saur-Brunnen, are celebrated in most Countries. They proceed from a Mixture of the Spirit of Vitriol, Salt, and Alum; which Minerals are found partly fimple, and partly mixed, with others more or less, in the Bowels of the Earth, especially with Steel and Iron. We prove this to be the true Caufe of Acidulæ. 1. Because almost wherever these acid Fountains break out, there are found Mines of Vitriol, Salt, and Sulphur. 2. Becaufe the Spirits of Vitriol and Salt are acid, and also the Spirit of Sulphur, as appears from Chemistry. 3. Because no acid Body can be drawn from these Acidulæ, but only a Spirit which is no way unlike the Spirit of Vitriol, Salt, &c.

THERE is plenty of Acidulæ in most Countries, especially those that abound in Mines. In Germany alone, their Number amounts to almost one thousand. Their Cause is an acid Spirit which is found in most Bodies, and in all Herbs and Fruits.

THE difference of Acidulæ is remarkable: Some are fo acid, that Men use them instead of Vinegar; fuch a Fountain as this is found in the Province of Nota, in Sicily; and another of a remarkable fourness at Elbogen in Germany. Other Fountains are called vinous because they come near the grateful Relish of Wine; of which kind there is a famous one at Schwalbach, in the County of Catzenellebogen in Germany (a). There is a Spring near St Baldomar.

<sup>(</sup>a) Such like Chalybeates or Acidula or Sour Waters; for Spares are not fo properly called they do not contain any rough, vitriolic

domar, in the Province of Lionnois in France, called la Fontaine forte, which supplies the want of Wine; for if one fourth Part of it be mixed with Wine, it will want nothing of it's right Taste and Relish; if it be poured on Flower, it will immediately ferment; they can boil no Meat in it, because through the Subtility of it's Spirit, it soon evaporates; it is so extraordinary wholesome, that the Inhabitants thereabouts seldom stand in need of a Physician.

NOT far from the Town of Bazas in Guienne, there is such a Fountain, of a sharp vinous Taste, whose Waters, if they are mixed with a fixth Part of Wine only, will drink like neat Wine, without the least mixture of Water. Near Rome there is a sharp tasted Alum-Fountain, whose Waters being mixed with Wine, make a very agreeable Liquor. There is a great Number of such Acidulæ in High Germany; some Part of which slow into the Danube and some into the Rhine. There are several of these in the fore-mentioned County of Catzenellebogen, in the Electorate of Triers, in Tyrol, in the Grisons

vitriolic, or acid Salts to make them tafte fharp or four, but rather leave a fweetish Flavour or Farewel behind; and tho' at the first thought one would ascribe a sharp or four 'Tafte to the Pyrmont, Spa-w, or Tunbridge, Waters, yet if they be rightly confidered it is their fmart brifk Taste that misleads us to think them acid or truly four. Thus Cyder and foft Ale when bottled will give the like Pungency to the Tongue, and fuch an acute Affection to the Palate, when it is far from being four. This is proved from several Experiments by Dr Slare. See more

to this purpose in a late Book entitled New Experiments and Observations upon Mineral Waters, by Dr Shaw. See also Philos. Trans. N° 137. Pag. 247. and N° 351. Pag. 564.

The most celebrated Spanos, Mineral or Medicinal Waters in England, are at these Places; viz. at Bath, and Tunbridge; at Farington in Dorsetshire; at Islington, Hampsted, and Pancras, in Middlesex; at Scarborough, Harrowgate, and Cockgrave, in Yorkshire; St Winissed; Well in Flintshire; at Dudwich in Surry; at Butterby in the Bishopric of Durbam, Sc.

Country, in Bavaria; and a famous one called Heilburn, near Anderna. Near the Village Valentiola, in the Territories of Toledo in Spain, there are Fountains that are acid, and have a vinous Tafte, near the Bottom, but are fweet at the Surface; which Baccius thinks proceeds from the subsiding of the acid and nitrous Particles; but I believe (if the Relation be true) that it proceeds rather from a fubtile Spirit, which by coming to the Surface, quickly expires.

OTHER acid Fountains are aftringent, and contract the Palate, which is a Sign of a Mixture of the Particles of Iron, or of Vitriol and Alum.

830

THE Water of these Fountains, is observed to be not fo four in cloudy and rainy Weather, which is a fign that condenfed Air is mixed with it. Also if it be exposed to the Sun, or stand for some Hours in an open Vessel, or be carried in the cold from one Place to another in Bottles not well corked, it loses it's Acidity; which is a certain fign that this Acidity proceeds from a fubtile Spirit.

THEY have also the very Atoms of Vitriol, Alum, Iron, Salt, Ink, &c. and of Clay and Gravel, &c. as appears from the Matter that sticks to

the Canals thro' which they flow.

THE Studious may collect a great many Examples from Authors. There are no lefs than two hundred acid Fountains or Rivulets, that flow into the Rhine; but because of the Subtility of their Spirits, the Rhine does not taste acid in the least.

IF any should enquire, Why there are no acid Fountains in the northern Countries? I suppose the Cause is owing to the want of subterraneous Heat, and to the great Denfity of the Earth; and for this fame Caufe there is little or no Gold found in those

Countries.

# PROPOSITION VII.

To explain the Cause of bot Baths, and to enumerate the most famous ones.

THERE is a Fountain in *Iceland*, which is thought to be hotter than any of the rest, so that it's Waters differ not from those that are heated to the highest Degree by Fire (b); but *Caronius* writes, that in *Japan* there is a Spring so hot, that no Water can be brought to the same Degree of Heat, by the most vehement Fire; it also retains it's Heat three times longer that our common Water heated. It shows not constantly, but twice a Day for an Hour, with a great Force of Spirits, and makes a Lake, which (as another Author tells us) is called by the Inhabitants Singacko, i. e. Hell.

NEXT after these, the Baths at Baden in Switzerland are samous for their Heat. To these succeed the Aponensian Baths in Italy. There are a great Number of common ones in High-Germany and other Places (c). In Scotland there is a Lake

called

(b) 'Dr Paulus Biornonius' tells (in Philof. Tranf. No '111. Pag. 238.) that fome 'Fountains in Iceland are so hot that in a quarter of an Hour they will sufficiently boil great Pieces of Beef, which is thus ordered: they hang the Kettles with cold Water, over them in which they put the Meat to be boiled; for sear of either

burning or throwing up the
Meat by the fervent, and vehement Ebullition of the Hot
Water.'

(c) There is a very hot Spring of Mineral Waters in Jamaica

which comes out of a Rock in a fresh Current, near to a sine Rivulet, of good cool Water, but is so hot that it soon boils Eggs, Crawfish, Chickens, &c. The Baths at Baden in Austria are tolerably warm, and tinge Metals with other Colours. Those at the Town of Bath in

Somerfetshire are not fo very hot (even the hottest of them)

' asto harden an Egg; yet there ' is a Spring in the King's Buth

fo hot that it is fcarce fufferable, fo that they are fain to

turn much of itaway, for fear of inflaming the Bath. The

Bb 3 Queen's

called Ness that discharges itself into a River of that Name; which tho' they be neither of them hot yet they never freeze, but still smoak in frosty Weather.

THE Cause and Generation of hot Baths is, 1. A Mixture of fulphureous Particles which are gleaned by the Water as it is carried thro' the fubterraneous Passages, or rather as it gleets thro' the Sulphur Mines to the Receptacles about the Fountains. 2. Fumes, Vapours, and Exhalations in the Bowels of the Earth, where there is pure or impure Sulphur, Fossil Coals, Amber, &c. For these

" Queen's Bath is not so hot, " having no Springs of it's own, but receives it's Water from ' the King's. The Cross-Bath ' is fomething colder than the others, and eats out Silver ex-" ceedingly; a Shilling in a Week's time has been to eaten by it that it might be wound ' about onc's Finger. In Sum-' mer they purge up a green fcum on the top, and in Win-' ter leave a Yellow one on the ' Walls. The Walls that keep ' in the hot Springs are very ' deep fet, and large; ten Foot thick, and fourteen deep from ' the Level of the Street. The " Cement of the Wall is yellow Clay, Lime, and beaten Bricks. In the Year 1659, the Hot " Bath (one particularly fo cal-' led of equal Heat with the ' King's Bath) was much ime paired with the breaking out of a Spring which the " Workmen at last found, and " restored. In digging they came to a firm Foundation of <sup>e</sup> factitious Matter which had ' Holes in it like a Pumicestone, " thro' which the Water plaid;

' fo that it is likely the Springs are brought thither by Art: ' Whence probably was the Necromancy which the People of antienttimes believed, and reported to have contrived, and made these Baths; as in a very antient Manuscript Chronicle I find these Words: When Lud Hidibras was dead, Bladud a ' great Nigromancer was made King; he made the Wonder of the Hot Bath by his Nigromancy, and he reigned twenty one Years, and after he died, and lies at the New Troy. And ' in another old Chronicle 'tis ' faid: That King Bladud fent for the Necromancers to Athens to effect this great Business; who, 'tis likely were no other than cunning Arti-' ficers well skilled in Architec-' ture and Mechanics.' This from Mr Joseph Glanvil's De. scription of Bath, in Philosoph. Trans. No 49. Dr Brown says, the natural Baths at Buda are the noblest in Europe, not only for their variety of hot springs but also for the Magnificence of their Buildings. Bodies

Bodies constantly emit hot Smoke, which warms the Water as it passes such Places (d). Nevertheless in most Baths there is a Mixture of the Particles of Alum, Iron, or Nitre, which give them an aftringent and tartish Tafte. Most Baths that we know of, flow without ceasing, except the famous Pepper-Baths not far from Coire in the Grisons Country in Germany, whose Waters contain, beside Sulphur, fome Gold, and not a little Nitre. They begin to fpring yearly about the third of May, and cease to flow about the fourteenth of September. The most celebrated Baths in Germany are, the leaden ones in Louvain; the Emsenbades above Constance; those near Gebersweil in Alsatia; those in the Marquifate of Baden; those in the Dukedom of Wirtemberg, called Wildbad; the Cellenfian Baths; the Blasianian Baths, near Tubingen, &c. There are many in Japan and the Indian Islands: and fome in the Azores fo hot that Eggs may be boiled hard in them.

# PROPOSITION VIII.

To explain the Cause and Generation of vily and fat Liquids that flow out of the Earth, and to enumerate the Places in which the chief of them are found.

SOME Fountains pour out a bituminous Liquor, others a fat Water, or Water in which Drops of Oil fwim about. Two Miles from E-

(d) They best account for the Heat of these Fountains, great Fermentation that causes who suppose, that two Streams Heat, as we see in Vitriol and having run thro', and imbib- Tartar, which when mingled ed certain Sorts of different cause an intense Heat and Minerals, meet at last, and Ebullition. See the last menmingle their Liquors; from tioned Philos. Transact.

which Commixture arises a

dinburgh in Scotland there flows a Fountain upon the Superficies of which swim Drops of black Oil, which the Inhabitants use to soften their Skins. and to remove Scabbiness (e). Among the Antients a River in Cilicia called Liparis was famous, in which they that washed themselves, were thereby anointed as if they had been in Oil; but I doubt whether there be any fuch River now. So likewise there was a Lake in Ethiopia which anointed those that swam in it. In India also there was a Fountain which, in a clear Sky, fent out abundance of Oil. At Carthage there was a Fountain upon which floated an Oil that finelled like the Saw-dust of a Citron-Tree: this they made use of to anoint their Cattle with. Vitruvius tells. us, that there were Fountains in the Island of Zant, and about Dyrrhachium, now Durazzo, and Apollonia, that vomited out a great deal of Pitch with the Water. Near Babylon there was a vastly

(e) Pliny faith, that the Salonian Fountain, and Andrian Spring flow with Oil and Wine. \* Polyclytus relates, that near 4 Soli a City of Cilicia there was a Spring that supplied the · Place of Oil. Theophrastus fays, that there was a Spring in Ethiopia which had the fame Faculty; that the Wa-\* ter of the Spring Lycos would burn by putting a Candle to 4 it; and the same is reported of Echatana.' Clarke upon Rohault's Phys. Vol. z. Pag. 201. Many fuch Fountains of Petroleum, and oily Substances, are now to be met with up and down; as at Pitchford in Shrop-Bire, and in the Island of Zant, very plentifully; in the Valtaline, subject to the Grisons; at the Foot of Mount Zebia in the

Duchy of Modena; at Gabian in the Road from Montpellier to Beziers in Languedoc. The Inhabitants living near these fat oily Springs, take Care to gather and separate the Bituminous substance from the Water; They gather it with Ladles, and putting it into a Barrel, separate the Water from the Oil by letting out the first at a Tap towards the Bottom of the Vessel. In the Island of Barbadoes there is a Rivulet, called Tugh River, which hath upon it's Surface in many Places a certain oily Substance, which being carefully taken off, and kept a little Time, is fit to burn in Lamps like ordinary Oil. Near Cape Helene in Peru there are Fountains of Rosin (or something like it) which flow in Abundance.

broad

broad Lake, called Affiballites Limne, that had a liquid Bitumen fwimming upon it, with which Semiramis cemented the large Brick-Walls which furrounded Babylon. At this Day there is a Fountain near Degemsce, a Monastery in Bavaria, whose Surface is covered with Oil, which is daily carried away by the Natives. There are also great Lakes in Syria and Africa which fend forth Heaps of Bitumen. The Acidulæ at Schwalbach if they be kept quiet in a Vessel for some Hours, there will be small Drops of Oil swimming on the Top of them. A greater quantity of fuch Drops are found in a Fountain called Oelbrunn near the Village Lamperschloch not far from Hagenaw! And in most Baths there are found bituminous Particles, after they have flood to fettle for fome Time; as in the

Petrolean Baths in the Kingdom of Naples.

THERE are also great Numbers of Fountains which do not produce Oil on their Surfaces, but pour out a meer fat or bituminous Liquor. Near Gersbach in the Valley called Lebersthal, there flows from an old exhaufted Mine a thick Oil or Bitumen, which the Country People use instead of Greafe to the Axle-Trees of their Wheels, but they are ignorant of it's superior Virtues; for Thernbeuserus tells us, that an excellent Balfani may be prepared from it. In the Island Sumatra there is a Fountain which pours out a kind of liquid Petroleum: fome fay it is a kind of Balfam; there are faid to be also Fountains of Ambergris there. They find a bituminous Fountain in Peru near the Sea, which emits a fmall Rivulet into it, and is used by the Inhabitants instead of Pitch; neither have they any other fort of Matter fo like it. Not far from Schimachian in Persia, at the Foot of the high Mountain Barmach, there are about thirty Fountains that fend out a Naphtha or bituminous Substance; but they lie low, and spring with great Violence

into Wells about two Ells deep, which are made with wooden Steps for the Conveniency of descending. They emit a strong sulphureous Spirit, which is of two Colours; in tome places red, and in others white; the later is of a more pleasant Smell.

THE Cause of these bituminous Fountains is a fulphureous and bituminous Matter melted in the Bowels of the Earth, and pressed upwards by a hot Spirit. Their Differences arise from the different fat Minerals that supply them; as Ambergris, Amber, the Oil of Petrol, Pitch, Naphtha, Bitumen, &c.

# PROPOSITION IX.

To explain the Origin of Waters that taste bitter; and to enumerate the Places of the Earth in which they are found.

ON the Shore of Cormandel in India there are feveral Springs and Wells whose Waters are bitter tho' they spring up among the Rocks. In Pontus, a Province of Afia minor, there is a small Rivulet at the Town of Callipade, called Exampean, whose Water is bitter; this makes the River Hypanis also bitter, into which it flows. The Reader may collect feveral more Examples.

THEY come from an impure Sulphur, Bitumen, Nitre, Copperas, Copper; as Water by long standing in a Copper Vessel, acquires a bitter taste. But I cannot credit what Molina delivers in his Description of Gallicia, viz. that there is a Lake in Ireland whose Waters are one half of the Day

fweet, and the other half bitter.

THE Lake Asphaltites, which is also called the Dead Sea, in Palestine, hath bitter Waters, because of an impure Bitumen mixed with them, to that by right it belongs to the fat Waters in

the

CHAP. 17. of Universal Geography. 379

the last Proposition. It sends forth a nauseous stinking Vapour. Every thing without Life is there drawn to the Bottom: but it suffers no living Creature to fink; neither does it grow fweeter tho' it absorbs the whole River Jordan that constantly flows into it. It's Waters are poisonous by reason of it's containing Arfenic (f).

## PROPOSITION X.

To explain the Cause of very cold Springs, and to enumerate the Places of the Earth in which they are chiefly found.

NOT far from Vienne in the Province of Dauphiné in France there is a Fountain so cold, that it swells the Mouth of those that drink it; nor can any one endure his Hands in it. It is not diminished when Water is drawn out of it, nor augmented by pouring it in. On the Coast of Abex in Ethiopia (formerly inhabited by the Troglodytes) there are extream cold Fountains, tho' the Sun be excessive hot there. Four Miles from Gratz in Stiria, are Fountains boiling up in a low Place, fo cold that none can drink the Water running or drawn from thence. About a Mile from Culma there is a Fountain that pours out Water with a strong Spirit as if it were boiling, tho' it be very cold, which makes them call it the Mad-Water.

(f) Our Countryman Mr Maundrell observed this Lake narrowly upon the Spot; but could not perceive any Smoak or Vapour ascending above the Surface of the Water, as is defcribed in the Writings of Geographers. He also went into it,

and it bore his Body in fwimming with an uncommon Force; but as to the Report of a Man wading into it as high as his Navel, will be buoyed up by it, this he found not to be true. Salmon

THE Cause of their Coldness is, 1. A Mixture of Nitre and Alum, also of Mercury and Iron, &c. 2. The great Depth from whence they fpring, fo that they want the Rays of the Sun, and the ful-

phureous Heat under Ground.

THERE are also Fountains that are cold and hot by turns. In Catalonia there is a falt Fountain and Lake, which are extream hot in the Winter and as cold in Summer. This is common to feveral others. I suppose the Cause of it is, that the Pores of the Earth, being open in Summer, let out the subterranean hot Spirit thro' them: which being shut in during Winter, keep it as in a Furnace or Oven, to warm the Water. Thus fome Fountains are hotter in the Night than in the Day.

# PROPOSITION XI.

To explain the Origin of those Waters that seem to turn Bodies into other Species; and to enumerate the Places of the Earth in which they are found.

THERE are some Waters which petrify Wood or turn it into hard Stone. A little above the City of Armagh in Ireland, there is a small Lough, in which if a flick of Wood be fixed, and continue for some Months, the Part that is fast in the Mud becomes Iron, and that in the Water turns to a Whetstone, and that above Water continues to be Wood. This is reported by Giraldus and Maginus: but Brietius, by what authority I know not, fays that it is a Fable throughout (g). In

(g) There is certainly no fuch Lough as this in Ireland; their famous Lough Neagh was formerly thought to have a petrifying quality; but upon due examination it is found, that the faid quality is to be ascribed to the Soil of the Ground adjacent In the North Part of Ulster (a Province in Ircland) there is a Fountain, in which if Wood be immersed seven Years it will be petrified. There are Loches of Water in the Province of Beausse in France, that petrify every thing thrown into them. At the Town of Sens in [Champagne] near

to the Lake, rather than to the Water of the Lake itself. There are some Waters in Scotland that petrify: As in Glevely, at a Place called Achignighium, there is a Rivulet which fo turns Holly into a greenish Stone, that they ordinarily make Moulds of it for cafting of Balls for Fuzees; and Tinkers that work in Brass, make both their Moulds, and melting Pots of it, and Women their round Wharls for fpinning. Also upon the north Side of the Firth of Forth there is a Cave, from the Top of which drops Water that in falling makes long Columns refembling the Pipes of a Church Organ, and some of different Figures. See Philos. Trans. abridged by Lowthorp. Vol. ii. Page 321, 325. 'There is a · River in Thrace which if you ' drink of it, will turn your ' Bowels into Stone, and cafes ' with Marble whatever is put ' into it. Concerning which Se-" necathus speaks in his Natural. " Quaft. Book 3. Chap. 20. the · Mudofitis of that Nature that ' it glues Bodies together, and ' hardens them. As the Dust of · Puteoli, if it touches the Wa-' ter, it becomes Stone; fo, on ' the contrary, this Water, if it touches any thing folid, flicks, and cleaves to it. Hence it is that Things thrown into this

Lake are afterwards taken out and converted into Stones. The fame Thing happens in fome Parts of Italy, if you put in a Rod or a green Leaf, in a few Days after, you take out a Stone. And Pliny Book 2. Chap. 103, lays, 'In the Cicous River, and in the Lake of Velinus, in the Country of Marca di Ancona, Wood cast in is covered over with a stony Barlt, and also in Surius a ' River in Colchis; fo that a hard Bark commonly covers ' over the Stone still. So like-' wife in the River Silarius, be-' yond Sarrentum, not only Rods ' put in, but also Leaves turn in-' to S one; the Water is other-' wife very wholesometodrink. Clarke upon Robault's Phys. Vol. ii. Pag. 202. In the Island of Haynan near China there is a Water of fuch a strang equality, that it petrifies some fort of Fishes when they unfortunately chance to enter into it. Among the Quickfilver Mines in Guisnavilica in Peru, is a Fountain of hot Water whose Current having runa confiderable way, turns at last into a fost kind of Rock, which being eafily cut, and yet very lafting, is ufually employed for building of Houses thereabouts. There are feveral petrifying, and incrustating Waters in Virginia, &cc. a Lake.

a Lake, there flows a petrifying Fountain. Vitruvius tells us that there is a broad Lake, between Mazacca and Tuana in Cappadocia, which changes a Reed or a stick of Wood, in one Day, into Stone. There is a Fountain near Charles's Baths in Bohemia, in which if Wood lie long it is turned into Stone. Such as these are found in divers other Places. Other Waters are thought to change Iron into Copper, which in fact they do not, only because these Waters carry the Spirit and Particles of Vitriol and Copper, they eat out, and by little and little dissolve, the Particles of Copper as they flow along with the Water.

THE Cause why these Waters turn Wood into Stone is, 1. Some do not change the Wood itself into Stone; but the earthy, stoney, saline Particles contained in the Water flick to the Wood, and only incrustate it with a stony Crust. 2. Others do not change the Wood into Stone, but give it a hardness equal to that of Stone. 3. If any Water have a true petrifying Quality, I suppose it may be accounted for thus (b). The chief

Difference

(b) ' In the Summer of the ' year 1729 I happened to fee ' the famous petrifying Spring · called Dropping Well at Knaref-· borough in Yorkshire. It arises ' fomeyards from the Top of a

Break of hard marly Earth (I ' cannot call it a Rock, it being ' feveral Degrees more foft, and

' crumbling than our common " Rygate Stone) made, I suppose,

' fome time or other by the River Nild which flows very ' near to it. The Current,

which is but fmall, runs to the Breakwards, where be-

ing interrupted with Sticks,

' Twigs, and Moss laid for that ' Purpose on the Edge of it, it ' is diffused all over the Stone,

' and partly gleets down the ' fides, and partly falls perpen-' dicularly in Drops upon fome

' Pebbles, where there is a ' finall Matter of Water below.

'This Well doth by no means ' petrify Wood, Moss, &c. ' put into it, but only incrusts

' them all over with a stony

' Crust; Neither hath it this in-' crusting quality (at the Spring

' Head) before it comes to the

' Break, and runs down, or drop, from the foft marly Stone.

Difference that can be perceived by the Eye between Wood and Stone is, that in the Wood there are as it were long Fibres in which it's Parts cohere, tho' not very close. But in Stone the Particles, being as it were Sands or Atoms, are not joined by any extended Fibres. If therefore it be the Nature of any Water to dissolve, and, as it were, grind the long fibrous Particles of Wood, that they do no more cohere after this Manner, but are still more condensed, the Difference between it and Stone will not be fo great as to be difcerned by the Eye; yet it is probable that thefe

' I am the larger upon this, because it seems to point out ' the true reason of Petrifaction; for is it not hence reasonable ' to suppose? that the Water ' gleeting down the fides of the ' foft Stone, corrodes the minu-' telt of it's Particles, and is im-' pregnated with them; which are again separated from the ' Water, by putting sticks of ' Wood into it, (by the Power of Attracting) as we fee fome kinds of Salt feparated from ' Water by the like Means, and other Bodies feparated ' from those that are compounded with them, by fuch as are ' found by experience to attract ' their Particles. Now when ' these Particles are so minute ' and fubtile, as to intrude with 4 the Water into the Pores of 4 the Wood, in process of Time, " when it is throughly foaked, the Interflices will be quite ' filled with ftony Particles; and f if any thing ligneous remain, 6 it is so well guarded and in-' crustated by these Particles

' if (as in the present Case) the ' Particles are not fo minute as to penetrate the Pores of the ' Wood, they only flick close ' to the outfide of it, and parget ' it over (as it were) by degrees ' to a confiderable thickness. " What strengthens this Opi-' nion very much is; that the ' Particles of the Cafe or Cruft, ' when ground to powder, are, ' to all appearance, like the ' Particles of the Stone from ' whence the Water drops, only the later is fomething ' whiter and rounder. ' Is not therefore such sub-' terraneous Earth as this, thro' ' which the Water, of fuch ' like Qualities, runs, the ' Cause of Petrifaction? ' Because we may gather from hence the Reasons why ' Fountains petrify fome forts

' of Wood throughout, but ' not others; also why some

' petrify only the Bark, Sap,

or foftest Part, and others

only incase it, E.c.

' to be acted upon by Fire: but

### PROPOSITION XII.

To explain the Cause of poisonous or lethiserous Waters; and to enumerate the Places of the Earth in which they are found.

THE Lake Afphaltites is one of these, having Arsenic mixed with Bitumen in it (i). The Fountain of Neptune, near Terracina in the Country of the Volscians was samous of old, because all that drunk of it immediately lost their Lives; and therefore it was filled up with Stones by the Inhabitants. At Chycros in Thracia there was a Lake that killed not only those who drunk of it, but even those that washed in it. There is a Fountain in Thessay which Cattle are not suffered to taste, nor any kind of Beast to come near it. Vitruvius relates, that there is such deadly Water as this near the Sepulchre of Euripides in Macedonia. As to the Spring and River Styx in the

(i) Near Esperies in Usper Hungary are two deadly Fountains whose Waters send forth such an insectious Steam, that it kills either Beast or Bird approaching the same; for the preventing of which they are walled round and kept always covered. In Ireland there is a Lake which commonly sends up such a pestilentious Vapour, as frequently kills Birds that endeavour to sty over it. 'Near' Dantzie there is an inland Seamade by the Consuence of

three Rivers, whose Waters are sweet and wholesome,

' Fish; yet in the three Sum-' mer Months, June, July, ' and August, it becomes every ' Year green in the middle ' with an hairy Efflorescence; ' which green Substance being ' by fome violent Wind forced ' ashore, and with the Water ' drunk by any Cattle, Dog, or ' Poultry, causeth certain and ' fudden Death'. See Mr Kirkby's Observations upon it in Philof. Trans. Nº 83. Beyond the Falls of Rapahanac in Virginia there are faid to be poisonous Waters, &c.

' and well flored with delicate

Mountain

Mountain Nonacris in Arcadia; the Antients write that it fprings out of the Rocks, and is so cold and venomous that it is called a River of Hell, also that it can be contained in no fort of Vessel made of Silver, Brass, or Iron, but only in the Hoof of a Mule. Some Historians write, that Alexander the Great was poisoned with this Water, by Jolla the Son of Antipater, not without a Suspicion of Aristotle's being concerned in it. Vitruvius writes, that there was a Water, in the Kingdom of Cottus on the Alps, which whoever tasted immediately fell down dead. At this Day there are feveral poifonous Springs found on or about the Alps, but the greatest Part of them are stopped up with Stones; fo that they are not fo much as taken Norice of

THE Cause of such Waters is their running or gleeting thro' arfenical, mercurial, and antimonial Earths, whereby they are impregnated with their Fumes; for as the Smoke, or Fume, of Arfenic kills living Creatures, fo Waters impregnated with fuch a Fume do the same.

#### PROPOSITION XIII.

To explain the Cause and Differences of coloured Waters; and to enumerate the Places of the Earth in which they are found.

AT the Town of Chinon in Touraine (a Province in France) there is a yellowish Spring gushes out of a Cave, and as it flows is concreted into a Stone. In the Kingdom of Congo in Africa there is a River of a red Colour that flows into the Sea. In the Valley of St George near Sultzmat in Alsatia there is a Fountain of red Water, called Rothwasser. The Rubicon, (so called from it's redness) now Pisatello, in Italy, slows from the top VOL. I. Cc of the highest Alps. There are some Fountains of black, greenish, and other coloured Waters, but thefe are very rare (k).

THE Cause of the Colour of these Waters, is the Colour of the Earth thro' which they run, be-

fore they come to the Fountain-Head.

## PROPOSITION XIV.

To explain the Origin of falt Waters; and to enumerate the Places in which they are found.

THEY are owing to two Caufes. 1. Some proceed from the Sea in subterraneous Passages, to the Superficies of the Earth, where they fpring up. 2. Others are generated from the Salt contained in the Bowels of the Earth, by pervading the Places where it lies, and mixing with it's Particles and Spirits, before they come to the Fountain. Salt Fountains are very common, and known to every In Germany there are those at Hall, in the County of Tyrol, at Hall in Upper Saxony, at Hall in Swabia, and at Hallen in Bavaria; likewise those in the Archbishopric of Saltzburg, in the Duchy of Magdeburg, at Saltzburg in Lorrain; and feveral others in other Places, which make up almost one hundred. We need not fay any more to them here, fince we also treated of them in the last Chapter; and every one knows whence they pro-

(k) In the Province of Los Carcas in Peru, there is a Fountain, out of which issues a confiderable Current, of a Colour almost as red as Blood. Near Leswille in Somersetsbire, there 15 a Pool which contains a greenish fort of vitriolic Water. At Bafil, there is a Spring of a blueish Colour. At Egling-

ham, in Northumberland, there is Water comes from an old Drift, formerly made to drain Coal-Pits, which has an atramentous Quality, and is turned as black as Ink, by an Infusion of Galls. There are se-veral of these atramentous Springs in other Countries.

CHAP. 17. of Univerfal Geography. 387 ceed, viz. from hidden Quantities of Salt, lying here and there under Ground; it being itself an Element.

# PROPOSITION XV.

To explain the Cause of boiling Fountains, and those that break out of the Ground with great Force; and to enumerate the Places of the Earth, in which they are found.

THE Cause is partly a sulphureous, and partly a nitrous Spirit, mixed with the Waters under Ground; if it be sulphureous, the Waters are hot; if nitrous, they are cold; but all that boil and bubble up like hot Fountains are not so, but several of them are cold; as that near Culma, called the Mad Water, which we mentioned in Proposition X. The River Tamaga, in Galluia, rises from a Lake, and at it's breaking out, makes an odd kind of bellowing Noise, for some Months of the Year (1). The strange hot Fountain in Japan, which

(1) There is a boiling Fountain at Peroul, not far from Montpellier, that heaves and rifes in fmall Bubbles; which manifeftly proceeds from a Vapour, breaking out of the Earth; for upon digging any where near the Ditch, and pouring other Water upon the dry Place newly dug, it produces the fame boiling. The like bubbling of Water is found round about Peroul, upon the Sea-Shore; and in the Etanz itself. There is a famous boiling or flaming Well near Wigan in Lancashire, with which you may boil an Egg, and upon the approaching

of a lighted Candle, it takes Fire. One like this was discovered in the Year 1711, at Broselay, near Wenlock, in the County of Salop: It was first found out by a terrible uncommon Noise in the Night; the Noise was fo great, that it awakened feveral People in their Beds, that lived hard by, who got up to fee what it was, and found the Earth to rumble and shake in a Place near the Sewern, and a little boiling up of Water through the Grafs. They took a Spade, and digging up fome part of the Earth, immediately the Water lew upagreat Cc2 Height, which (as we observed in *Proposition* VII.) only flows twice daily, and at each time about an Hour. When it begins to flow, it is cast out with such Force and Vehemency of Spirits, as to heave up great Stones laid on it's Mouth, and slies three or four Yards high, with a Noise resembling the Report of a great Gun. In *Westphalia*, there is a Fountain called *Bolderborn*, because of the great Noise it makes in springing.

ACIDULÆ, and most hot Baths, break out also with a great Force of Spirits, and boil up as if they were boiling hot; in Baths it is caused by a sulphureous Spirit, and in Spaws and Acidulæ, by

the Spirit of Vitriol and Nitre, &c.

Height, and a Candle that was in their Hand fet it on Fire. To prevent the Spring being destroyed, there is an Iron Ciftern placed about it, with a Cover upon it to be locked, and a Hole in the Middle thereof, that any who come may fee the Water through. If you put a lighted Candle, or any thing of fire to this Hole, the Water takes fire, and burns like Spirit of Wine or Brandy. Some People out of Curiofity, after they have set the Water on Fire, have put a Kettle of Water over the Cistern, and in it a Joint of Meat, and boiled it much sooner than over any artificial Fire that can be made. Yet what is most strange, the Water of itself is as cold as any Water can be, even just when the Fire is put out. Of the fame fort is that near Grenoble

in Dauphiné; that near Hermanfladt in Transsevania; that near Chermay, a Village in Switzerland; that in the Canton of Friburg, and that not far from Cracow, in Poland. There are many hissing Springs, bubbling at the top, in Switzerland, and in other Places near the Rhine. There are fome boiling Waters that are hot to feveral Degrees, fo as to boil Eggs, and other things put into them; as those near the Solfatera, not far from Naples; as also upon the top of Mount Zebio, in the Duke of Modena's Territories, not far from this Villa, near Saffalo; in the Source of the Emperor's Bath at Aken, in the County of Juliers, &c. This in part from Dr Tancred Robinson's Observations upon boiling Fountains, in Lowthorp's Abridgment, Vol. II. Pag. 329.

# PROPOSITION XVI.

To enumerate the Waters that have other strange Properties, and to enquire into the Causes of them.

HITHER ought all fuch to be referred, as cannot be conveniently reduced to the former Class. There is a Fountain at Cadima (eight Leagues from Coimbra) in Portugal, which swallows up whatever is thrown into it; and there was formerly near to this, one that vomited up whatever was thrown into it, but it is now stopped. Eusebius Nierembergius relates, that there is a Lake not far from Guadaiana in Andalufia, which foretels a Storm, for when a Storm is approaching, it breaks out with horrible Roarings and Howlings, which may be heard at eighteen or twenty Miles diffance\*. There is a Well near Calais, [in Picardie] into which if you throw a Stone, you'll hear a Noise in the Cavity, like a prolonged Thunder-Clap. There are fome Wells on the Alps, whose Waters cause those that drink of them, to have great Swellings about their Necks. There is a Fountain near the Town of Anteque in the Province of Granada, which is of fuch a Nature, as to diffolve Rocks.

NEAR Tours, a Town in France, People vifit the dropping Caves, (called les Caves gouttieres) from whose Concavity Drops of Water fall in several Figures, as that of Nuts, Almonds, &c.

THE hot Fountain in Japan, scorches and consumes every thing put into it, Iron, Flesh, Cloth,

Ec. THERE was formerly a Fountain at Clitor, a Town in Arcadia, whose Water, being drunk

<sup>\*</sup> There is faid to be one like this near Guadalaxara in New Caftile.

by any Person, made him have an Aversion to Wine.

THERE was a Spring in the Island of Chios, made those that tasted thereof stupid; and at Susa in Persia, there was a little Well, which made their Teeth fall out that drank thereof. The Studious may collect feveral other strange Properties of Fountains, in reading of Authors. Their Caufes proceed from the Situation, or peculiar Properties of the Places where they are found (m).

### PROPOSITION XVII.

To enumerate those Fountains that slow only at certain Times, or that ebb and flow; and to explain their Cause.

THIS Proposition belongs to the preceding Chapter, because it is about marvellous Waters, and being then omitted, it shall be explained here.

(m) Josephus, the Historian, tells us of a River, which for fix Days runs violently fwift, and refleth on the feventh always; wherefore it is called the River of the Sabbath. Tavernier tells of a Well at Schiras in Perfia, which is fifteen Years rifing to the top, and fifteen Years finking to the bottom. ' About \* two Leagues from Paderborn, 4 is a treble Spring called Me-\* thorn, which has three Streams two whereof are not above a . Foot and a half distant from one another, and yet of fo dif-' ferent Qualities, that whereas one of them is limpid, blue-' ish, luke warm, and bubbling; the other is Ice-cold, turbid, ' whitish, and heavier than the

' former, and also killeth all Poultry that drink of it. As to the third Stream that lies lower than the other two, a-' bout twenty Paces diftant from ' them, is of a greenish Colour, ' very clear, and of a four fweet ' Tafte, pleafing enough.' Philof. Tranf. No 7. Pag. 133. At the City of Toledo in Spain, there is a Fountain, whose Waters near the bottom, are of an acid Taste, but towards the Surface extreamly fweet. Near to Sanyenga (a Village not far from Rio de la Grace, in Negroland) is a Well of ten Fathom deep, whose Water is naturally so very sweet, that in Taste it comes nothing short of ordinary Sugar Gerdon.

IN

CHAP. 17. of Universal Geography.

391

IN Wales, not far from Dinevowr Castle [near Carmarthen,] there is a Fountain which ebbs and slows every day with the Sea, and observes it's Hours.

THE like Flux and Reflux, is observed in another on the top of a high Hill, in the Province of Connaught in Ireland, and yet the Water is sweet; the same is observed in the Fountain Lou Zara, upon the Chabretian Mountains in Gallicia, twenty Leagues from the Sea; also in the Village Marsace in Guienne, there is a Fountain that follows the Tides at Sea, and slows at the same Time with the Garonne at Bourdeaux. There are other Fountains that are said to increase and decrease contrary to the Tides, such as Strabo and Mela report to have been in the Island of Gades (Cadiz) (n).

IN Wales, near the Mouth of the River Severn, there is a Pool called Linliguna, which swallows up the Water of the Flood Tides, as long as they flow (but is not increased thereby): but when they begin to ebb, then it begins to rise, and to vomit out the Water with great Vehemence all round it's

Banks.

IN Cantabria (Bifeay) there are the Tamarician Fountains, of which three out of the four, are dried up twelve times every day, fo that there feems

C C 4

(n) At a fmall Village called Newton, in Glamorgan/bire, is a remarkable Spring nigh the Sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the Tides. 'Lay-Well, 'near Torbay, ebbs and flows 'very often every Hour, vifibly enough; fometimes fixteen, fometimes twenty times. The Diftance between high and low Water Mark, is and bout five or fix Inches. It is 'very pleafant to drink, and 'feems to have no Communication with the Sea.' Philof.

Tranf. No 104. Pag. 909. [There are two Fountains in Craven in Yorkshire, which ebb and flow; one at Gigglesweek, called Ebbs and Flows, which does so regularly every Day; the other at Hebden, called Thruskil, which smetimes (even in a great Drought, when there has been no Rain for a Month) breaks out with a great Force, of whitish, muddy, troubled Water; though at other times it runs very clear, and affords excellent sweet Water.

question whether such are to be found now.

IN the Dukedom of Anjou, above Saumur, there is a Village called Varuas, from whence a Rivulet flows twice daily, and twice ceases or stagnates.

IN Savoy, there is a large Spring called the Wonderful Fountain, which ebbs twice every Hour and flows twice, making a great Noise before it begins to flow. It runs into the Lake Bourget.

ON the Mountains of Foix (in Languedoc, a Province of France) near the Village Bellestade, is the fource of the River Lers, which in June, July, and August, ebbs and flows twenty four times every Day. Bertius relates this from Papyrius.

IN the part of Westphalia, called Paderborn, there is a Fountain that ebbs and flows twice every Day, tho' it emits as much Water as, a little below the Fountain, turns three Mill-wheels. It breaks out with a great Noise, and therefore (as we faid before) is called Bolderborn [i. e. the boistrous String].

IN the Town of Villanova in Portugal, there is a Fountain, commonly visited, that flows only from the beginning of May, to the beginning of November, and then leaves off; as Eusebius Nierem-

bergius relates.

IN the County of Valais, in Germany, not far from the Baths called Leuckerbad, there is a Fountain called St Mary's Well; it ceases to spring on St Mary's Day in Autumn, and returns in May.

IN [Carniola,] not far from Laubach, there is a Lake that is fo dry in Summer, that it is fowed and mowed (0). The Water returns in Autumn,

and

54%

<sup>(0)</sup> This Lake is so very re- Description here, which we shall markable, that it will deserve a give from Philos. Trans. No

CHAP. 17. of Universal Geography.

393

and brings Fish with it. Not far from hence, there is a Fountain that hath the same Property.

54, 109, 191. It is called the Zirchnitzer Sea, from Zirchnitz, a Town upon it's Banks, of a bout three hundred Houses. The Lake is near two German Miles long, and one broad. It is furrounded everywhere with mountains, and no where runs over. In June, July, and sometimes not till August, the Water runs away, and finks under Ground, not only by Percolation, or falling through the Pores of the Earth, but by retiring under Ground, thro' many great Holes at the bottom; the little, if any, that remains in the hilly or rocky Part, is evaporated; and in October or Novemb. it most commonly returns again (though not at any certain Time) and foon covers the Tract of Earth again. This Return and Afcent is fo fpeedy, and it mounts at the Holes with fuch Violence, that it springs out of the Ground, to the height of a Pike.

The Holes are in the shape of Basons or Cauldrons, which are notof the same Depth or Breadth, being from twenty to sixty Cubits more or less broad, and from eight to twenty Cubits deep. In the Bottom of these are several Holes, at which the Water and Fishes enter, when the Lake ebbs away. These are not in soft or loofe Earth, but commonly made in the solid Rock.

The Lake being thus every Year wet and dry, ferves the Inhabitants for many purposes. For first, while it is full of Wa-

ter, it draws to it feveral forts of wild Geefe and Ducks, and other Water-Fowl, which may be shot, and are very good Meat. 2. As foon as the Lake is emptied, they pluck up the Rushes and Weeds, which make Litter for Cattle. 3. Twenty Days after it is fully dry, they cuta great Quantity of Hay upon it. 4. After the Hay is in, they plow it, and fow Millet, which generally comes to Maturity. There is great Variety of Hunting; there coming out of the neighbouring Woods and Mountains, plenty of Hares, Foxes, Deer, Swine, Bears, &c. fo foon as the Water is gone. 6. When it is full, one may Fish in it. 7. All the Time when the Water goes away, it yields great abundance of Fish. which they catch in the Pits and Places, where the Holes are not big enough to admit them under Ground. Laftly, when the Water returns, it brings a fort of Ducks with it, which are bred under Ground, and when they first come out can swim well enough, but are stark blind, and have few or no feathers on them. They foon fee after they come into the Light, and in a small time get their Feathers, being much likeWild-Ducks, and are of a good Taste, and easily caught.

The Cause, or rather Modus, of all these wonderful Phænomene in this Lake, is supposed to be, a Lake (viz. a subterrancous one) under the Bottom of this,

SO the Pool or Lake of Maron, between the Sca of Galilee, and the City Belena, is fo dry in Summer, that it brings forth tall Herbs and Shrubs, yielding shelter to Lions, Wolves, and other wild Reafts.

IN Guienne, near the Church of St Jean d'Angeli, there is another that hath almost no Water in it in Winter, but abundance in Summer.

THE like is found in Spain, about twelve Miles from Valladolid, which begins to flow in May, and gives over in November.

ALL hot Baths flow without ceafing, except those, already mentioned, in the Grisons Country.

with which it communicates by the feveral Holes described. There are also one or more Lakes, under the bordering Mountain Javornick, but whose Surface is higher than that of the Lake of Zirchnitz. 'This upper Lake is possibly fed by fomeofthemany Rivers, which in this Country bury themfelves under Ground. When it rains, especially in Thundershowers, which are the most hafty, the Water is precipitated with great Violence down the scep Vallies, in which are the Chanels of these Rivulets; fo that the Water in this Lake being increased by the fudden coming of the Rains, faster than it can empty, fwells presently, and finding feveral Holes or Caverns in the Mountain higher than it's ordinary Surface, it runs over by them into the subterraneous Lake under that of Zirchnitz, into which the Water comes up by the several Holes or Pits in the Bottom thereof, as likewife by vifible Paffages above Ground.



# SECT. V.

Containing one CHAPTER.

#### CHAP. XVIII.

Of the Changes on the terraqueous Globe, viz. of Water into Land, or Land into Water.

#### PROPOSITION I.

To enquire how much of the Surface of the terraqueous Globe, the Earth and Water severally take up.

T is impossible to know this accurately, because we are ignorant of the Situation of the Earth and Ocean, about the North and South Pole, and because their Superficies are terminated by irregular and crooked Lines, not easily computed or measured. But so far as we can guess, from a bare Inspection of the Globe, it seems that the Superficies of the Earth and Water are nearly equal; each taking up half of the Globe's Surface.

### PROPOSITION II.

The Surfaces of the Earth and Waters, are not always equally extended, but sometimes more, and sometimes less; and what the one loses the other gains.

THE Sea frequently breaks in upon the Land in feveral Places and overflows it, or waftes it by degrees, and washes it away; by which means

396 The Absolute Part SECT. V.

it's Superficies is enlarged according to the bigness of the Plane of Earth it overflows; such an Inundation happened of old in *Thessaly*, &c. But the greatest that we know of have made no sensible Alteration in the Surface of the Globe, tho it is possible that, some Time or other, there will happen such as may; as we shall shew in Proposition xviii.

### PROPOSITION III.

To compute bow much Earth and Water the terraqueous Globe contains.

TO find this accurately there ought to be known exactly the Surface of the Water; and it's Depth in different Parts of the Sea, and also the Bulk of the subterraneous Waters. All which we are ignorant of, and have no method to find them; and therefore are at a loss in finding the true quantity of either Earth or Water. We may form an Hypothesis, and take the Superficies of the Water for half the Superficies of the whole Globe, and also suppose the Sea to be a quarter or half a Mile deep, (one Place with another) not reckoning the Water in subterraneous Caverns.

THESE being granted, the quantity of Water is found thus: Take a quarter or half a Mile from the Semidiameter of the Earth, and find the Solidity of a Sphere, whose Semidiameter is equal to the Remainder. This Solidity being taken from the Solidity of the whole Globe, half the Remainder is the quantity of Water. This last being again substracted from the Solidity of the Globe, leaves the quantity of Earth, to which, for the Mountains, you must add a fourth or fifth Part of the Bulk of the Water, or even a half: yet

CHAP. 18. of Universal Geography. 397 all this is but guess-work, and not to be depended upon for Truth.

#### PROPOSITION IV.

The Water may leave the Shore, and the Places of the Earth which it covered before, for several Reafons; so that the dry Land may appear where it was Water or Sea before, and a new Plat of Earth may seem to be formed.

TRACTS of Water are seven-fold; 1. The Ocean. 2. Bays. 3. Seas or Streights. 4. Rivers.

5. Lakes. 6. Ponds. 7. Bogs.

THAT Bogs or Marshes may be drained, either by letting off the Water, or drying it up by continual Fires, or by throwing dry Earth into them, none need doubt; for in several Places and Countries there are fertile Fields, where there were formerly nothing but Bogs and Marshes; as in Westphalia, Gelderland, Brabant, Holland, Muscovy, &c. So the Peloponnesus in Greece was, in the Time of the Trojans, barren and marshy Ground, but was made fertile in Aristotle's Time by draining it.

THE same may be said of Pools and Ponds,

which are not very different.

# PROPOSITION V.

Rivers leave their Shores (or part of their Chanels) dry, and form new Parcels of Ground in many Places.

1. IF their Water bring down a great deal of Earth, Sand, and Gravel out of the high Places, and leave it upon the low, in process of Time these will become as high as the other, from whence

whence the Water flows: Or when they leave this Filth in a certain Place on one fide of the Chanel, it hems in and raifes Part of the Chanel which becomes dry Land.

2. IF a River take another Course, made by Art, or Nature, or fome violent Cause, as the Wind, or an Inundation, it leaves it's former

Chanel dry.

3. IF the Fountains that feed a River are obstructed, or cease to send out their Waters, because of the Earth falling in, or by being stopped with Heaps of Sand driven in by the Wind from the adjacent Places, the Chanel of that River be-

comes dry.

EXAMPLES of Rivers, whose Chanels are now dried up either wholly or in Part, are frequently met with among Authors; not of any great Rivers, but of those of the smaller fort, and some Branches of the great ones; thus that Branch of the Rhine, which formerly run by Leyden into the German Ocean, some Ages ago forsook it's Chanel, which is now dry Land, and stagnates between

Leyden and Catwic.

WE have also several Examples of Shores that have been left dry by Rivers making themselves deeper and narrower Chanels than they used to run in; also of Rivers that are not navigable now, which have been fo formerly, their Chanels being made shallower, and, in process of Time, may be quite choaked up, as the Schelde, &c. Therefore the Rulers of Countries take care that the Sand-Banks, Filth, and Sediment, be continually removed out of fuch Rivers, fo that they may be kept open and navigable as much as possible.

BUT great Rivers are not dried up, or turned into dry Land in a great many Ages, or even Myriads of Ages, because a vast number of small CHAP. 18. of Universal Geography.

399

ones flowing from different Parts make up their Waters and feed them; fo that if one or two of them be dried up, or change their Course, it will be a long time before such an Accident happen to them all. One single Sand-Bank indeed might perform Wonders, in choaking up the Passage of a River, and make it take a new Chanel, whereby the former is dried up; but the River itself continues to flow, because it's Fountains and Branches are not obstructed. Nevertheless it is certain, that neither the Nile, the Tanais, the Elbe, nor the Rhine, &c. did or will always flow in the same Places, but their Chanels were formerly dry Land, and in future Ages will be so again.

# PROPOSITION VI.

Lakes are dried up and turned into Earth.

IF the Lake be fed by Rivers flowing into it, the Change is made by turning the Rivers another Way, or by their ceafing to flow, together with Evaporation. If it receive it's Waters from the Ocean or Sea by subterraneous Intercourses, these are to be stopped or diverted; and so the Lake at first is changed into a Fen or Bog, and afterward into dry Ground. Aristotle (speaking of Lakes fed by Rivers) fays, it is certain that the Force of the Water bringing Mud, or fuch like Matter, into any Lake, changes it into a Fen or Bog, and afterwards into dry Ground; for the Water stagnating, is in Time dried up. Thus the Mud and Sand, which the many Rivers bring down into the Lake of the Maotis, have made it fo thallow, that it will not admit fuch large Ships now, as failed upon it about fixty Years ago. 3

Of small Lakes that are turned into dry Land we have feveral Instances, especially in Holland.

### PROPOSITION VII.

Streights are dried up and turned into Isthmus's, or Parts of Continents.

THIS is caused by the continual gathering and fubfiding of the Mud and earthy Matter, which in Time choaks up the Streight, and stops the Intercourse of the Water.

THUS it feems very probable that the Ifthmus between Africa and Asia, which parts the Red-Sea from the Mediterranean, was formerly a Streight and joined them. The Depth of the Sea in feveral Streights is also found to grow less, and the Water to become shallower than it used to be, which is a certain Sign that fuch a Streight, fome Time or other, will be left bare, and be turned into dry Land. So that Bay in the Atlantic Sea which the Hollanders called the Zuider Sea, and the Streights of the Texel, will not now admit of loaded Ships of the first or second Rate, as they used to do formerly; and as the Water evidently lessens and becomes shallower every Year, it is likely the Texel, will one Time or other, become dry Ground: and that Streight which they call Ulie will, very likely, have the same Fate.

## PROPOSITION VIII.

Bays may be in time dried up, and turned into firm Ground.

THIS may happen from a two-fold Cause: 1. If the Streights which join the Bay to the Ocean become an Ishmus, or be choaked up with Sand and CHAP. 18. of Universal Geography. 401

and Mud (that fuch a thing may happen, we shewed in the last Proposition); by this means the Bay is cut off from the Ocean, and becomes a Lake, which is turned into a Fen, or Bog, and then into dry Ground. 2. If the Chanel of the Bay be heightened continually by the Sand and Gravel, brought down by the Rivers into it, it will in Time be higher than the Ocean, and receive no more Sea-Water.

THUS the Mediterranean, Baltic, Red-Sea, Persian Gulph, &c. which are now Bays, may be changed, one Time or other, into dry Land; as we shall further prove in the next Proposition.

### PROPOSITION IX.

The Ocean in some Places for sakes the Shores, so that it becomes dry Land where it was formerly Sea.

THIS is caused by these Means: 1. If the force of the Waves dashing against the Shore, be broken by Cliffs, Shoals, or Rocks, fcattered here and there, under Water, the earthy Matter contained in the Water, as Slime, Mud, &c. is made to fubfide, and increase the Height of the Sand-Banks, whereby the Violence of the Ocean is more and more refisted, which makes it yield more Sediment; fo that at length the Sand-Banks, being raifed to a great Height and Bulk, entirely exclude the Ocean and becomes dry Land. 2. It contributes much to heightning the Shores if they be fandy and rocky, for then the Sea dashing against them, and withdrawing, carries little or nothing away from them, but every Time it approaches them it brings Dregs and Sediment, whereby they are increased in the Manner aforefaid. 3. If some neighbouring Shores consist of light, mouldring, porous, Earth, which is eafily VOL I. Dd washed . VOL I.

washed away by the Flux of the Sea, it is mixed with the Water, and left upon fome other adjacent Shore that is harder; besides, when the Sea encroaches upon one Shore, it relinquishes another not far off. 4. Large Rivers bring down vast Quantities of Sand and Gravel to their Mouths, (where they exonerate themselves into the Sea) and leave it there, partly because the Chanel is wider and shallower, and partly because the Sea relifts their motion; but this is chiefly observed in Countries, whose Rivers annually overflow their Banks. 5. If frequent winds blow from the Sea to the Shore-wards, and the Shore itself be rocky or of rough Earth without Sand, it gathers Slime and Mud, and becomes higher. 6. If the Tide flow quick, and without great Force, but ebb flowly, it brings a great deal of Matter to the Shore, but carries none away. 7. If the Shore defcend obliquely into the Sea for a great Way, the Force of the Waves are broke and lessened by Degrees, and the Sea leaves it's Filth and Slime upon it.

THERE are feveral Places of the Earth, which, it is certain were formerly covered by the Ocean. Where Egypt is now, it was formerly Sea, as appears both from the Testimony of the Antients, and Experience; for the Nile, flowing from the remote Regions of Ethiopia, when it overflows it's Banks, covers all Egypt for a Time, and then fettling by Degrees, it leaves the Dregs, Mud, Dirr, and earthy Matter, which the fwift Courfe of the River had brought down; by this means Egypt becomes annually higher and higher. But before fuch a Quantity of Matter was brought down to the Nile, the Sea covered the Land of Egypt, tho' it be repulsed and hemmed in now by the Earth's acquired Altitude. Aristotle, among others, afferts this, and fays: This Place, and the whole Coun-

try

try (meaning Egypt) were formed by the pouring in of the Nile, and feems to gain Firmnels every Year. But fince the neighbouring Inhabitants, by Degrees, began to cultivate the Marshes and Bogs as they dried up, it is impossible to guess at the Time of this Mutation. However, it feems that all the Mouths of the Nile have been made by Hand, and not by the River, except that of Canopus. It is further evident, that all old Egypt confifted only of one Town, which they called Theres. Homer declares this, who flourished (I may fay) not long after these Changes; for he mentions that Place as if there were then no fuch City as Memphis, at least not so large. Seneca explains this better thus: Egypt (fays he) arose wholly at first from Mud; and if we may credit Homer, the Island of Pharos was so far distant from the Continent, as a Ship, with all her Sails spread, could fail in a Day, but now it is joined to the Continent; for the Nile flowing muddy and troubled, and carrying down much Slime and Dirt, leaves it about it's Mouths, whereby the Continent is annually enlarged, and Egypt is stretched further and further every Year. Hence comes the Fatness and Fertility of the Soil, and also it's Evenness and Solidity; for the Mud fettles and grows dry and hard, and the Ground becomes firm by what is laid upon it.

THE Ganges and Indus, both famous Rivers in India, do the fame as the Nile, by their Inundation; also the Rio de la Plata in Brasil. And it is very probable that China was formed by this means, or at least enlarged; because the impetuous River, called the Hoambo, slowing out of Tartary into China, and frequently overslowing it's Banks, tho' not annually) hath so much Sand and Gravel in it, as to make a third Part of it's

Waters.

THESE Examples demonstrate the fourth Caufe, viz. that Rivers make the Sea forfake the Shore; but the Sea itself, in feveral Countries, is the Cause of it's own retiring, by bringing to the Shore, and there leaving Sediment and Matter enough to increase the Altitude of the Coast; so that it fuffers not the Sea to overflow it any longer. Thus Holland, Zeeland, and Gelderland, were formed; for the Sea covered these Countries formerly, as is known both from the antient Monuments mentioned in History, and the Quality of the Soil itself. In the Mountains of Gelderland, not far from Nimeguen, there are found Sea-Shells, and at a great Depth in Holland are dug up Shrubs and ouzy matter; add to this, that the Sea itself is higher than these Countries, and would overflow and cover them, but that it is restrained by Banks and Dams. On the other hand, there are some that think Holland and Zeeland arose from the Mud and Sand brought down by the Rhine and the Maes; nor is this unlikely. Prussia also and the adjacent Countries daily become larger by the Sea's retiring.

#### PROPOSITION X.

To explain the Origin or Rife of Sand-Banks.

BY Sand-Banks we understand large Collections or Cliffs of Sand in the Water, standing up above the Chanel of a River, to fuch a Height as to hinder the Passage of Ships. The Dutch Sailors call them een Droogte, een Banck, cen Riss; the Portuguese, Abrothes, and Baixes. They differ not from Rocks, only that Rocks are hard, folid, and coherent in their parts; whereas Sand-Banks confift of grains of Sand, that flick more loofely together. Tho' these two are often confounded.

THESE Sand Banks lie either in the Chanels of Rivers, as frequently in the Elbe, and the IVolga; or at the Mouths of Rivers, as is also frequent in the two Rivers just mentioned; or on the Sea Shores, or in the middle of the Sea. The manner of their Generation is the same as in the foregoing Propositions we observed of the drying up the Course of Rivers, and the Shores of the Sea. For it generally happens, that the Ocean, before it leaves any part of the Land for good, first produces these Sand-Banks near the Shore; then recedes by degrees, and leaves the Sand-Banks a part of the Continent. And after the fame manner it happens in the Chanels of Rivers, before they dry up, and are totally forfaken by the Waters. The most common Cause is the increasing of the Rivers with Rain, or melted Snow, fo that they rush down violently, and wash off their Banks, where they are narrow, Slime and Mud; which is carried down a great way from their Fountains, till 'tis brought to some wide Place, where the Motion is not fo violent; and here it fubfides and forms a Bank of Sand, or Mud.

NOR can any greater Evil happen to the most rich and flourishing trading Towns, whose loaded Ships have been ruined by them; not to mention Towns, that thro' Time are quite forgot, there are the Cities Stavoren in Friesland; Arnemude, or Armugen, in Zeeland; and Dordracum in Holland; Antwerp in Brabant; and Stada, in the Bishopric

of Bremen; all which have had this Fate.

NOR is there scarce any trading Sea-Port free from the Danger. These Sand-Banks in the Elbe, have loft a great many Ships to the Hamburghers, which had efcaped many Dangers on the Occan; and in other Places, especially the Texel, and the

Ulie at Amsterdam.

MANY of these Banks are seen on the Sea-Shore of Flanders, and Friefland, and at low Water feem to be parts of the Continent, having fo little Water above them at high Tide, as not to admit of Ships. The Sand-Banks that are famous or infamous among Sailors for Shipwrecks, are 1. Those found all in one Place, at the Shore of Brafil, extending in a Tract of feventy Miles, which they that go to the Indies, ought carefully to beware of, when they are failing that way to avoid being becalmed on the Guinea Shore, tho' they come as near them as they can, to get the more Wind; but ought to take Care they do not fall in between those Banks, and the Shore. Those of St Ann, not far from Guinea in Africa, in six Degrees of North Latitude: the Ships once carried among them, are not brought eafily from them; but detained for feveral Days, when the Seamen think they have got rid of them; for they do not lie close together, but are parted by Gulphs and deep Places; so that when they are in ten Yards Water, they on a fudden shall found but three Yards. 3. Those between Madagascar, and Arabia, and Africa, called the Baixas of Judea: they are sharp, ragged Rocks of Coral, of various Colours. 4. Those about China. 5. Those towards Flanders; and feveral others that may be feen in Sea Charts.

WE have shown one Way how they are formed, viz. by the substituting of the Matter which the Sea carries with it; we may add a second Way, and that is, by the Sea's coming in upon Land, that hath heaps of Sand on it, which, being covered, are Sand-Banks under the Surface of the Water. Thus at the Shores of Gelderland, and Holland, there are several such, which they call Dunen; they are in a long Tract raised above the Land, on the Shore:

CHAP. 18. of Universal Geography.

407

Shore; and if the Sea break in, then these Hills become Sand Banks.

THEY are frequently at the Mouths of Rivers where they are broadeft, and where their Motion is not fo rapid but the Matter can fubfide, and the Waves of the Sea beat back the River-Water, which stops it's Force. It is worth while to dithinguish and consider these two ways.

#### PROPOSITION XI.

To judge whether the Sand-Banks not far from the Shore will become a part of the Continent.

WE showed, in the preceding Proposition, that they are formed two ways; one by the subsiding of Matter, and the other by Heaps of Sand that are overslowed: if they happen in the first way, and they be found to increase still, it is likely they will be joined to the Continent; but if in the second way, and they are not increased, then it is not likely they will be joined, but rather that the Sea will come further: but this we only guess.

# PROPOSITION XII.

Islands are formed in the Sea and Rivers, the same way that Sand-Banks are (which may become Islands), and also another way.

FOR if there be gathered in any part or the Sea, Sand, Gravel, Slime, or Clay, it will in time become an Island; and if the Sea break in upon the Land, and surround Hills, they become Islands; and thus 'tis likely those were formed which are very high, as St Helena, the Isle of Ascension, &c. especially if they be rocky and stony.

AND to these belong those which the Sea cuts off from the Land that juts out into it; thus antient Writers tell us, that Sicily was cut off from Italy, by the breaking in of the Sea violently; and the Verses of the Poet on this Subject are well known.

BY the first way, viz. by subsiding and gathering of a great many earthy Particles, were formed the Islands of Zeeland, Denmark, and Japan; and also the Isles of Molucca: for there were found, by those that dug the Ground there a little way down, a great quantity of Sand and Shells.

THE Inhabitants of the Island of Ceylon fay their Island was separated from India, and it is very likely. Thus the Mand of Sumatra is thought to have joined Milacca; and it is probable, because of the feveral Banks and Quick-Sands there. It is certainly believed it was the golden Chersonesus, and was counted to be a Peninfula, for it appears fo

at a distance, and to be joined to Malacca.

THE Indians, on the Malabar Shore, tell us, that the Isles of Maldives, were of old joined to India, in one Continent, and are now a great way from it, and divided into eleven thousand Mands; and it is probable they will all in time be joined in one Island, they being not distant in fome Places above four or five Yards. The narrow Seas will become narrower, and fo join one to another. And indeed all the oriental Islands, between the Continent of Asia and Magellan, seem to arife from the Sea's breaking in violently on the Land, and feparating one part from another; for the Pacific Sea moves with a continual force to the East from America to these Isles, and the Wind blowing constantly that way increases the force; it is not therefore unlikely that, feeing all these Islands are in the Torrid Zone, Asia did of old

CHAP. 18. of Universal Geography.

409

old join the Magellanic, or South Land, the Earth being broke off here and there by the Sea, 'till at latt it made it's way to the Indian Ocean, and formed many Islands strangely situated close together, as Java, the Celebes, Borneo, Madura, Amboyna, &c.

WE may judge the fame of the Islands in the Gulf of Mexico, and at the Streight of Magellan.

IT is uncertain whether the Islands of the Egean Sea were broke off the Land by the Sea, the Waves from the Euxine and Mediterranean Sea meeting one another, or by the substituting of the Matter which was brought from the Euxine to the Propontis; tho' the former is more probable: and perhaps this was the samous Deluge of Deucalion. It is certain the Isle of Eubaa, or Negroponte, joined Greece, as samous Writers relate; for the Sea between them is so narrow as to have a Bridge over it.

WE have feveral Inflances of Islands made by Sand-Banks. Thus those in the Nile, and in the River of St Lawrence in North America, were Sand-Banks. The Rivers make Islands also when they discharge a Branch in one Place, and receive it in another, as in the Tanais, and Wolga, and others; which no doubt is done by the Industry of Men. The Oby does the fame. The two Rivers, Rengo and Coauza, produced the Isle of Loanda, on the Shore of fouthern Africa, where they exonerate themselves into the Sea, because they bring down from the high Places a great quantity of Slime and Gravel with great Violence, which they deposited still in the Mouths of the Rivers, and so made the Isle of Loanda; which at first was but a Sand-Bank, and now it is a fruitful Island, abounding with Inhabitants and fertile Land. We believe a great many Islands on the Shore were formerly Sand-Banks, or Clay-Banks, tho'

fome were made by parting them from the Continent, as at *Norway*: and this is most probable of those that are hard and rocky.

BUT, in the Indian Sea, fuch may happen by both ways; for while the Sea wears off, it doth at the fame time carry away with it much Earth, which fettles in another Place; and this is much caused by furious Winds, and frequent Storms, that come from the breaking of the Clouds in the rainy Months; from May to September. The Sea is strangely disturbed by these, so that the Sand and Clay is raised from the bottom, and carried to the Indian Shores. Thus the Mouths of the Harbours at Goa are fo obstructed by Heaps of Sand, which come with the force of the Storms from May to September, that small Ships can fearcely enter; and these Heaps of Sand so obstruct the Harbour of Cochin, that they are like a Bar, or Wall, that neither great nor small Ships can enter.

FOR continual Rains on Mount Gate, and the frequent Storms from the Clouds which are feen hanging as it were above the tops of the Mountains, pour out so much Water with such Violence that the Sea carries a great deal of Sand to the Shores; where, meeting with Opposition, the Sand subsides, which is carried away again by the Sea, when the Winter is over, and the Harbours cleared.

THERE are fome Islands fo near the Land, that they are furrounded at the time of full Sea; and if the intervening Chanel become higher, these Islands become a Part of the Continent.

AND the overflowing of the Nile makes the Towns and Hills look like Islands; and the Wolga doth so swell in May and June as to cover the Islands and Sand-Banks in it; and several of the Islands near India become like Sand-Banks in the rainy

CHAP. 18. of Univerfal Geography. 411 rainy Months, when the Nile and Ganges overflow these Countries.

#### PROPOSITION XIII.

There is another way that Islands are formed besides the two abovementioned, which is delivered by some Writers, viz. that the Earth on a sudden is carried from the bottom of the Sea, and suddenly rises to the Surface.

OTHERS think very justly that this fabulous way comes from the fabulous Greeks and Poets, who will have Delos to have come up that way; and the grave Author Seneca fays, the Island Therasia did, in his Time, come up in the Ægean Sea, and that the Seamen observed it: and tho' indeed there are but few Examples of this kind, yet we are not therefore to think it impossible; for there may be in the bottom of the Sea fome porous, spongy, hollow, and fulphureous, Earth, (as there are many forts of light Earth,) which is now grown to a great Height under the Water; and if it come to break off by the force of the Sea, and being of less or equal Weight with the Water, it may come to the Superficies, and an Island appear on a fudden. Or a Spirit shut up under the Earth, and endeavouring to break out, may without the force of the Water bring it up to the Surface; for these Spirits included have great Power, as appears in Earthquakes, by which whole Mountains have been thrown up and fwallowed down, and the same way are great Towers and Walls blown up by Gun-Powder placed under Ground.

IF therefore the Island that thus appears suddenly do yet adhere to the Bottom, it must be that it was forced up by the Spirits inclosed underneath; as some write, that sometimes Mounderneath;

tains have been blown up that way; but if it do not adhere to the Bottom, it might be loofened from the Bottom, partly by the force of the Water, and partly by the inclosed Spirits, and come up by it's own Lightness.

#### PROPOSITION XIV.

FROM this another doubt arises; Whether there are floating Islands; as Thales thought the whole Earth did float on the Water of the Ocean: but his Opinion is fufficiently refuted from the Sea's Chanel being continued every where, and yet there may be floating Islands if the Earth be hollow, light, and fulphureous. Seneca tells his Experience, that he faw in the Lake Cutilia, in the Fields of the Town Reate, belonging to the Sabines, an Island that floated, and Trees and Herbs on it, that was carried here and there by the Wind, yea by a gentle Gale; and that he never found it for a Day and Night in the fame Place; and he fays there was another Island that floated in the Lake of Vadimone; and another in the Lake of Statione. Thus the Antients fay, that Delos, and all the Islands of the Cyclades, did of old float on the Sea. Nor need it be objected, why don't they fwim now? for the Answer is easy; the floating cannot hold out long, for they reaching near the Bottom, and being carried from one place to another, they meet with a Sand Bank and and fettle there, especially if they come between two Sand-Banks, then they join and become fixed. In Honduras, a Province of America, there is a Lake in which there are feveral little Hills, planted with Shrubs and Herbs toffed up and down with the Wind.

IN the large Loch, called Lomond in Scotland, there is an Island that floats, and is driven by

CHAP. 18. of Universal Geography. 413 the Wind: it feeds Cattle, as Boëthius, the Writer of the Scots History, relates.

SO far of the forming of dry Land where Sea was; now we shall consider how there can Water

come where there was dry Land.

# PROPOSITION XV.

The Rivers run in new Chanels for several Causes.

1. WHEN they come from their Fountains, and get a Chanel either made by Art or Nature.

2. IF a River fend out a Branch from it, which is caused for the most part by Men, either to bring Water to a Town, or to another River: Examples whereof we shewed above.

3. IF Rivers gain more and more upon their Banks; which happens, 1. When the Chanel grows higher thro' the subsiding of Mud and Sand. 2. If it wear off the Banks by it's swift Course. 3. If it be increased by another River slowing into it, or by Rains or Snow.

4. IF they overflow the Land, and become Lakes by not returning to their former Chanel, which if they do and leave a good deal behind they

make Bogs.

## COROLLARY.

IT is probable Time was, when the Chanels of the Rbine, Elbe, Nile, and all other Rivers, were dry Ground, and may again become fo.

### PROPOSITION XVI.

Lakes, Bogs, and standing Pools, occupy Places that they did not before.

1. WHEN they are first formed and enlarged as in Chapter xv.

2. IF plenty of Rain fall.

3. IF the Rivers carry much Water into the Lakes with great force.

4. IF their Chanel become higher.

5. IF the Lakes by the frequent and strong Waves wear off the Banks, and cover more Ground. Thus the Lake of Harlem, within these thirty or forty Years past, is enlarged about one twentieth of a Mile round.

#### COROLLARY.

IT is probable, that the Places where the Lake Zaire, or Leman, or Parime, or of Harlem, or of Mæotis, and the Bogs in Westphalia, and all others, were once dry Ground.

## PROPOSITION XVII.

There is Ocean where there was none before.

THIS may happen feveral ways; 1. When it breaks into the Land, making Bays and Streights, as the Mediterranean, the Bay of Bengal, the Arabian Gulph, and Bay of Camboia, &c. Thus the Streights between Sicily and Italy, between Ceylon and India, between Greece and Negroponte, the Streights of Magellan, Manilba, and at the Sound; yea fome will have the Atlantic Ocean thus made, and to have parted America from Europe, that they may better deduce the Generations of Men there from Adam. It is certain the Egyptian Priest told Solon, the Athenian, that about fix hundred Years before Christ (as may be seen in Plato's Dialogue called Timæus) that there was once an Island over against the Herculean Streights CHAP. 18. of Universal Geography. 415

of Gibralter, greater than Africa and Afia, called Atlantis, and by a great Earthquake and Inundation in a Day and Night, that it was afterward funk (viz. a Part of it); by which we may understand there was a Tradition among the Egyptians, who were given to Learning, that America was separated from the old World, many Ages before. It is much more probable as to the North part of America, that New-France, New-England, and Canada, did of old join Ireland; the Antients say the Streights of Gibralter were dug by Hercules.

2. WHEN the Sea is driven on the Shore with strong Winds breaking down the Shores and Banks, made by Art or Nature; there are several Instances of Inundations, as in Thessaly of old, and not long ago in Friesland and Holstein.

3. WHEN it doth, by the fame Caufes, go over the Land in feveral Places making Islands; as we faid of those in the East Indies, and the Bay of Bengal and Camboia, which slowed into the

Land.

4. WHEN it wears off the Shores, and spreads in upon the Land: thus the Baltic Ocean came in upon Pomerania, and destroyed Vineta, a most samous Sea-Port. Thus on the Shore of Norway it broke in, and cut off some Islands from the Continent, and the German Ocean broke in on Holland, near the Village of the Catti, and overspread a great Tract of Ground; thus the Ruins of an old British Castle, that was a Garrison of the Romans, is, a great way in the Sea, hid under Water. And on the North part of Ceylon near India, the Sea took off twenty Miles, and made the Island less; and there are many other Examples also.

#### COROLLARY.

HENCE we understand, that where there is now Sea there was Land, and again may be, if the Earth hath lasted, and shall continue, some thoufand Years; of which fee Aristotle in his Book of Meteors, Chap. xii. Lib. i. and Stevin's Geography. If it be asked how the Sea can cover the Mountains, we answer they are not to be covered, but will be high Rocks therein, or Islands, for all Islands almost have Mountains in them; as Ceylon, Sumatra, Java; and some are nothing but Mountains; as St Helen, the Isle of Ascension, the Hesperides: and seeing these Places were once Land, then these Islands and Mountains in it were high Places on the Continent.

# PROPOSITION XVIII.

Whether the whole Surface of this Globe may be either all Land or Sea; or if there may be more Land or Water one time than another.

IT is sufficiently thown in the second Proposition, that there may be less Earth, and consequently more Sea, one time than another. But to that Question, whether there may be a Deluge that shall cover the whole, even the very Mands; we anfwer the way how fuch a thing may happen, may be conceived and explained, yet can scarce ever happen, the Earth being fo compactly joined and the Mountains fo high. The way it may happen is the fame as in the fecond Proposition. If the Ocean continually wash away the Shores and lay them in deep Places, at last all the high Parts will come down and be washed away, and the Sea come in on the whole Earth; there may be some Mountains or their Roots washed washed away, and they fall down; and it were easier done if, as some think, the Sea were higher than the Land, but this we have before resuted. And to that, whether the Sea can ever go all into Caverns of the Earth, and there be nothing but dry Land, we answer the same way; tho' it may scarce ever be: there is only one way by supposing the Caverns so large as to contain the Sea, and none have yet demonstrated the contrary; and tho' they are not, they may be made so by the force of the Water or subterraneous Spirits.

# PROPOSITION XIX.

Why there are few Islands in the middle of the Ocean, and no Clusters of them, except at large Islands, or near the Continent.

WE need not doubt of the Truth of this, being confirmed by Experience. There is scarce one little Island in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, and there are but sew found in the vast Ocean between Africa and Brasil, except St Helen and the Isle of Ascension; but on the Shores of the Ocean, or great Continent, are all the Islands, except the sew I mentioned, especially the Clusters of Islands; those of the Agean Sea are near Europe and Asia, the Hesperides near Africa, the Maldvies near India, and all the Indian Islands lie between Asia and the South Land, only the Azores, or Flandrian Isles, seem to be in the middle of the Ocean, between America and the Old World; tho' they are nearer the latter.

THE Cause of this Phænomenon no doubt is, that they were cut off the main Land by the Sea's breaking in upon it, which could not cover all Places it came to, because of their Height. It is likely they are also some of them made thus:

VOL. I. E. e. the

the Sea washing off some Lands cannot carry their small Parts far off, but lets them fall down by degrees near the Shore, which being done for a long Time, Islands are at last formed. 1. But in the middle Ocean there are few Islands, for the Particles washed off the Shore do not go so far. Because there is a greater Motion and Force of the Water, which rather increases the Depth of the Chanel than causes any Islands. 3. Because there being no Continent there, no Cluster of Islands can be formed, according to the first way that we shewed they were made; yet of old when the middle of the Ocean was not where it is now, there might be a Cluster of Islands, which might be gradually washed away.





# SECT. VI.

Containing the Explanation of the Atmosphere and Winds, in three Chapters.

#### CHAP. XIX.

. Of the ATMOSPHERE and AIR.

# PROPOSITION I.

There are continually Vapours and Fumes exhaled from the dry as well as moist Parts, into the Space which furrounds the Earth.

THE Cause is twofold; r. The celestial Heat of the Stars, especially the Sun and Moon.

2. The terrestrial Heat,' or subterraneous Fire, mixed with the Earth, for we find all Bodies almost send out Exhalations when brought near the Fire, tho' very gentle; and seeing celestial and terrestrial Heat is nothing but Fire, therefore Vapours and Fumes must be raised thereby. And as the Nature of Heat, so Experience confirms the Truth of it; for Travellers in the Night may see, especially when the Moon shines, and near Waters, the Vapours that are raised wandering about the Air, and that they are raised in the Day-time by the Sun is commonly known; as also when little Clouds ascend, which is a sure sign of Rain.

#### PROPOSITION II.

The Atmosphere is all that Space about the Earth, in which the Vapours are; and it is uncertain if any thing else be contained in it but Exhalations.

IT is also taken for the Exhalations themselves that are about the Earth. It is no small Controverfy among the modern Philosophers, what that is which is about the Earth. Several famous Mathematicians are of Opinion there is nothing there but Exhalations; and fo the Atmosphere and Air is counted the same: and above the Atmosphere is the æthereal Substance next it. Others think that there is a kind of Body besides these Exhalations, which is called Air, tho' they allow that Exhalations may turn to Air, and Air to thick Vapour and Clouds; and after this Air, all the Way to the Orbit of the Moon, they place another subtile Body, different from Æther, which they call Fire, indeed; but they confess, improperly, as no way agreeing with our Fires; for it is hot, (tho' not burning) dry, and very fubtile, not causing the Refractions of the Rays of the Sun and Stars, which they own to be in their Air. These things considered, the two Opinions of the Philosophers differ rather in Words than in the Thing itself; for as to the Air, that is fo gross as to cause Refraction, and may be generated from Exhalations, that may be only a more refined Exhalation, tho' not from the Earth. As to the fublunary Fire, feeing they own it is improperly called fo, and is fo fubtile as to cause. no Refraction, it seems to differ but little from the æthereal Matter; we may then fay the Atmosphere, or Air, is a Body about the Earth, into which the Rays falling, are refracted (laying aside the Question whence it comes); which Desinition

nition agrees with the foregoing one, nor is it very likely a Body fo fubtile could be exhaled from the Earth, as to make no Refraction or hinderance to the Rays of the Sun, that come thro' the Æther; and if there be such, we know how high they are, or if they be out of the Atmosphere; which yet, if any would strongly maintain, believing the Particles of Fire that come from the Sun, on the Earth, do again travel back to it, they will not deny but the foregoing Definition is proper. Therefore the Atmosphere and Air is nothing but a great many small Bodies interwoven together and adhering to the Earth; as the Down on a Quince or Peach.

# PROPOSITION III.

There are sometimes more, sometimes sewer Exhalations sent up; especially in different Places.

THE Cluse is, 1. The different Elevation or Depression of the Sun above or below the Horizon.
2. The different Age of the Moon, and it's Elevation above the Horizon.
3. The rising and setting of the other Stars, and their Situation above the Horizon.
4. The Difference in the Parts of the Earth; for Water and moist Places send out more Vapours than dry and earthy.

# PROPOSITION IV.

The Exhalations that compose the Atmosphere are of different Kinds, especially in different Countries, viz. watery, saline, sulphureous, earthy, and spirituous.

THE Cause is, because there are such different Bodies in the Earth, and some are most easily, and others with difficulty drawn up; some may E e 3 doubt

doubt of the earthy Particles, because of their Weight; but yet this may be, 1. Because of the exceeding finallness of the minute Particles of Dust, that have more Superficies in proportion to the quantity of Matter in them, and therefore are lighter. 2. Because of the mixture of sulphureous Particles, which carry them violently along with them.

A N D that there are fulphureous Parts in the Air, appears from the fiery Meteors that are feen, as Lightning, Thunder, Jack with his Lanthorn, and the fulphureous Smell that is after Thunder and Lightning.

THERE can be no doubt of the watery Exhalations that are spirituous and saline, they being very fmall and eafily drawn up; and the little Animals that are bred in the Air, in great Quantities

do testify the same.

THE Aristotelians divide Exhalations into two forts, Vapours, and Smoke. The Vapours are from the Water, and do easily turn to Water again, and the Smoke from dry things; thus Sal Ammoniae turns all to Fume above the Fire; and hence it is that different Countries have different Air, and that it rains in one Place, and not in another.

#### PROPOSITION V.

The least and insensible Particles of Air beat back or reflect all the Rays, as a Looking-Glass doth; but some of those that are perceivable and compounded transmit more Rays and reflect fewer; others again, transmit server Rays and reslect more.

THEREFORE the Parts of the Air are divided into opake and pellucid; the former transmit fewer Rays, the latter more,

BECAUSE

BECAUSE the least Particles, like Atoms both from the Earth and Water, are little folid Bodies without Pores, and therefore do reflect and difallow a Passage to the Rays; for it is very probable, that Transparency, or the passing of the Rays, requires Pores duly disposed, and void of Matter.

BUT the Parts of the Atmosphere, or Air, that are compounded of the least Particles, if they have feveral Pores, duly disposed, will be transparent and transmit many Rays; but if the Particles be joined very confusedly, and be without many Pores, they will not admit many Rays to pass through.

HENCE it is, that the Sun dispersing a thick dark and cloudy Air, makes it more porous and

transparent.

THAT the least Particles reflect the Rays, appears from this; if the Sun's Rays be admitted into a dark Room, in a clear Day, thro' a narrow Hole, you will clearly fee the Rays reflected in great Number (from the Particles flying in the Air) to your Eye, as it were from a Looking-Glass; and as these Particles are still visible, we may conclude, in some Degree, the same of those that escape

the Sight, and are least of all.

SOME would have the moift Exhalations to be transparent, and not the dry Fumes; but they are confuted by Experience and Reason; 1. By Reason; because the Fumes and dry Exhalations may become as finall and porous as those that are moift; for they think that Transparency does not confift in Porofity, but that it is a peculiar Quality of the Medium: and 2. By Experience; because a clear Air hath more dry than moist Particles in it. This is understood from the new kind of Wind-Guns which are discharged not by Powder and Fire, but by help of the Air, which is com-

E e 4 preffed preffed and condenfed, that it scarce takes up the fixtieth Part of the Room it had before, and yet there is no moistness in the Gun; which must have been if the Particles of the clear Air had been from Water.

### PROPOSITION VI.

Exhalations do not of themselves and of their own Nature ascend, but are forced up: or thus, the Air is not light, but beavy, confidered absolutely.

ALL Things are faid to be heavy which would tend to the Center of the Earth if they were not hindered, and that the Air doth; for the Earth being dug, the Air goes down to the Room made there, and it's tending upwards is; 1. Because Heats rarifies and makes it take up a greater Room.

2. Because it is forced by other Vapours.

THUS in cold Countries, as Nova Zembla, and with us, no Cloud afcends in the Night, but the Heat of the Sun coming on rarifies it, and makes one Part to press and force another: but if the least Particles of Air were not folded together, but at Liberty, they would move up and be light (p).

PRO-

(p) That Air is a ponderous Body, appears from a variety of Experiments, particularly one, from which it's Weight uses likewise to be estimated.

Take a Glass Tube, closed at one end, which fill with Quickfilver, then invert it with the open end, into a Vessel, also filled with Mercury, and the Mercury in the Tube will forthwith fubfide, and after a few reciprocarions, stand at thirty Inches above the Surface of the Mercury, contained in the Vessel. The Reason why the Quickfilver is suspended at such a

Height is, because it is imposfible for it to descend, unless at the same Time the Mercury in the Vessel ascend; which, being on every Side preffed with the Weight of the ambient Air, cannot quit it's Place, unless the Weight of Air exceeded the Weight of Mercury in the Tube. And that this is the Cafe will appear from hence; put all the above-mentioned Apparatus into a large Receiver, out of which, by the Air Pump, extract the Air; then, as the Air is extracted, you may perceive the Mercury, contained

# PROPOSITION VII.

The upper Parts of the Atmosphere are more subtile than those below; yet it may be, that those in the middle Region may be thicker and grosser than those near the Earth.

FOR the lighter Parts go upwards and the more fubtile Parts are the lighter, which shows the Truth

in the Tube, gradually to subside; but if again you shall by degrees let in the Air, the Mercury in the Tube will ascend, in proportion to the quantity of Air intromitted, 'till at last it reach it's pristine Height of thirty Inches. This Apparatus, of the Tube and Vessel, together with the contained Mercury, is, from it's Use in measuring the Air, called a Barometer: and from it's Author, Torricellius, any Experiment perform'd by means thereof, is called Torricellian.

'Tismanifest, that the weight of the Mercury contained in the Tube, and the weight of a Column of Air, whose Altitude is that of the whole Atmosphere, and whose Basis is equal to the Orifice of the Tube, if weighed feparately, the one will be equal to the other; so that when the Weight of the Air is diminished, the Barometer is depressed, and vice versa. Hence by taking a View of the Barometer, you may, at any time, know the present Gravity of the Air; which is a Problem of vast Moment both in Universal Physics. and in Meteorology in particular, and which deserves to be ranked among the noblest Inventions of the modern Philosophers.

By the Experiments performed fome time ago before the Royal Society, for comparing the Weight of Air with Water, and so with other Bodies; by the first Experiment the proportion was found to be as 1 to 840; by the next, as 1 to 852; and by the third as 1 to 860. And lately the Ingenious Mr Hauskbee, by a very fimple and accurately performed Experiment, found the Ratio of Air and Water to be as 1 to 885. All which Experiments being made in the Summer time, at which Seafon the Air is by the Heat expanded, and confequently lighter; and the Barometer standing at about 291 Inches higher; this might perhaps be fafely determined upon, that the Barometer afcending to 30 Inches, and the Constitution of the Air at a Medium, as to Cold and Heat. the Ratio of Airto Water would be as 1 to 800; and therefore feeing, the Weight of Water compared

Truth of the first Part of the Proposition: and the Cause of the second Part is, that those in the middle Region eafily go together and become groffer, the hot Particles carried up with them having left them, and the Rays reflected from the Earth having but small force in the middle Region, that is so diftant from the Earth.

WHENCE it is, that after Rain the middle Region is more clear; the groffer Part being fallen down (q).

PRO-

compared with Mercury, is as 1 to 131, the Gravity of the Air compared to the Gravity of Mercury would be as 1 to 10800.

Turin's Appendix.

(q) If with the Hands we fqueeze a blown Bladder, we feel the included Air make a ilrong Refistance, and by the Spring thereof, jumping back and difengaging itself, the Impressions, or Cavities, made by the Hands on the Surface of the Bladder, are immediately, on ceasing to press, expanded and smoothed; and this is called the Elastic Force of the Air. This Force, every Particle of Aircontinually exercises, and affecting a larger Space, contends against an equal Force of ambient Particles; whose Resistance being either fortuitoufly taken away or impaired, the Particle instantly expands itself into the whole Extent, be it ever fo large. Hence if flender glass Vials, or Bladders full of Air, and caretully stopp'd, be but into an Air-Pamp, they are burft by the Force of the included Air. Thus if a Bladder, only a little blown and flagging, be carried to the Top of a Mountain, or lofty Edifice, it immediately fwells to fuch a Degree, that if the Mountain be of sufficient Height, it feems to be wholly stuffed with Air. For the Altitude of the Atmosphere not being the fame upon the Top of a Mountain, as upon the plain Surface of the Earth, the pressure of the ambient Air is not therefore fo strong upon the Bladder placed there, and therefore the Air, included in it, springs into a larger Space. That the Air likewise upon the Top of a Mountain, is lighter than in Places of lower Situation, is evident from the Barometer, which being taken to the Top of a Mountain, the Mercury fubfides; fo that by means of it the Altitude, of Mountains might be very exactly calculated, were it once known in what proportion the Mercury falls; according to the different Height of the Place.

Vastly great, yea almost incredible is this elastic Force, by which, according to the fa-

mous

# PROPOSITION VIII.

The Atmosphere, or Air, growing bot, takes up more Room than before, and the more the Heat leaves it. it contracts the more, and takes up less Room.

THIS is abundantly confirmed by that Instrument called a Thermometer, by which is meafured

mous Mr Boyle\*, the Air, without the Affiftance of Heat, was dilated into a Space not only 60 or 150, but 8000, yea 10000, and at last 13769 times larger than that it possessed in it's natural State near the Surface of the Earth. And feeing the Air can be artificially compressed + to the sixtieth part of it's natural Space; it appears that the Place into which the Air may be artificially condenfed, to the Place, into which it would dilate itself, if freed from all Pressure, is at least, as 1 to fixty times 13769; or more than 826000.

By a great many Experiments performed in England, France, and Italy, relating to the Contraction and Expansion of Air, it is found that the Spaces into which, by different Weights, it is condenfed, are among themselves in a reciprocal Proportion to their Gravities; or, the greater the Pressure is on the Air, the less Space it possesses.

From which Theorem, together with the Proportion above

determined betwixt the Weight of Air and Mercury, it is eafy to fee the Grounds of the Controversies contained here and there in the Writings of the modern Philosophers, concerning the leffer denfity of the Air in the upper Regions, as also the Altitude of the whole At-

mosphere.

First then, if we allow the the Air to have no Elasticity, but that thro' the whole Space 'twixt the Earth and the utmost bounds and extent of the Atmosphere it is every where of the same Density; just as Water, which, howfoever deep, is every where from top to bottom equally dense; now fince from what has been already faid, it appears, that the Weight of a Column of Air, reaching to the top of the Atmosphere, is equal to the Weight of Mercury contained in a Barometer; and feeing alfo the Proportion of Weight betwixt equal quantities of Mercury and Air is found; it were easy to give a Definition of the Altitude of that Column of Air, or of the whole Atmosphere. For seeing a Column

<sup>\*</sup> Wallis's Hydrost. Prop. 13. + Philof. Transact. No 181.

fured the Heat or Cold in the Air, for the colder the Air in the Glass, it takes up less Room, and the

lumn of Air one Inch high, is to the like Column of Mercury, as 1 to 10800, it appears that these 10800 Columns, or a Column of Air 900 Foot high, is equal in Weight to 1 Inch of the Mercury, and confequently that all the 30 Inches of Mercury, contained in the Barometer, require a Column of Air 2-000 Foot high. So that, according to this Hypothesis, the Altitude of the Atmosphere would be only 27000 Foot, or a little more than 5 Miles.

But when, in the high Regions, the Air, by it's elastic Force, refiles and expands itfelf, according as the Weight of the incumbent Atmosphere is diminished, it must of necessity be far more raristed and subtile than the Air near the Surface of the Earth: and confequently a much greater Altitude must be assigned to the Atmosphere, than what was found by the just now mention-

ed Computation.

For feeing, according to the Theorem above laid down, the Spaces in which the Air is included, are reciprocally proportional to the compressing Gravities; but the density of every Body is in a reciprocal Ratio to the Spaces, which that Body possess; the Density therefore of the Air in any Part of the Atmosphere will be proportional to the Weight of the whole incumbent Air. And further, if we suppose the Al-

titude of the whole Atmofphere divided into innumerable equal Parts, feeing the Density of Air included in any one of these Parts is in proportion to it's quantity, and the Weight of the Atmosphere is also as the quantity of the whole incumbent Air; it appears, that the quantity of the whole incumbent Air is every where, as the quantity of Air included in the lower Part, which constitutes a Difference between every two nearest quantities of the whole incumbent Air. It is a Theorem in Geometry; that fuch Magnitudes whose Differences are proportional to the Magnitudes themselves, these Magnitudes are in a continued geometrical Proportion. Whence if, according to the Hypothesis, the Altitude of the Air, by adding the equal Parts, into which it is divided, increase in a continued arithmetical Proportion, it's Denfity will be diminished, or, which is the fame, the Rarefaction of the Air will be increased in a continued geometrical Proportion. Such as know the way of following fuch a Series, by taking a View of one or more of the Rarefactions of the Air at different Altitudes, may, without any Trouble, determine it's Rarefaction in any Altitude, or the Altitude answering to any Rarefaction, and so also the Altitude of the whole Atmosphere, if it may

be

the more Room, the more Heat it acquires; as we shall show in the following Proposition. The

be known, or made the extream Degree of Rarefaction, beyond which the Air cannot pass. Such as incline to know more on this Subject, may confult the famous Dr Gregory's Aftronomy, Lib. v. Prop. 3. as also the excellent Dr Halley's Differtation in Philo-Sophical Transactions Nº 181. who have demonstrated the fame in a different, and fomewhat more difficult way of reasoning, which I have here borrowed from the Demonstrations of a very learned Friend.

But withal we must not conceal, that these things have been rendered uncertain by the Observations of the famous Cassini \* and his Affistants; who, in order to extend the Meridian Line of the Paris Observatory, after having with great exactness measured the Altitudes of feveral Mountains, and marked the Height of the Barometer on the Top of each of them, they found that the Rarefactions discovered by that Method, no ways agreed with those we have lately laid down, but that they were far greater than what ought to come out from the abovementioned Proportion: whence becoming fufpicious, that the Experiments they had formerly made for finding out the Rarefaction of the Air under different preffures, had not been managed with fufficient Accuracy, they determined again to put the Matter upon Tryal, which Subject being diligently treated of in the Royal Academy, and when there were made great Dilatations of Air, compared to which, the Rarefactions found on the Tops of Mountains. were woundrous fmall; yet they found that all these exactly followed the reciprocal Ratio of their incumbent Gravities. So that it feems to be put beyond all doubt, that fuch is the Nature of the Air, which comes nearest to the Earth's Surface, that the less pressure it has upon it, the greater Space it dilates itself into: and feeing the upper Air, or fuch as environs the Tops of Mountains. does not observe this Proportion, it follows, that it is of a different Nature from the Air that is next us, which notwithflanding needs be no cause of wonder to us, if, according to the most approved Sentiments of Philosophers, we allow that there is in our Atmosphere, besides Vapours and terrestrial Exhalations, a certain Body of kin to itself, and endowed with fuch Affections. as we have above affigned to the Air; and further, that these Vapours and Exhalations, are no ways capable of fo great Rarefaction, as is the Air; and that these are mixed in far

greater

<sup>\*</sup> Hist. de l' Acad. Roy. 1703, and 1705.

natural Cause of the Proposition is this; that the hot Particles of the Sun's Rays, or any Fire, are the

greater plenty with the Air nearest us, than in the upper Air. These things being laid down, it is manifest that the Air of the higher Countries being less stored with Vapours, has, in proportion to it's Density, more Elafficity in it than that which comes next to the Earth, whence the reciprocal Ratio of Gravity, which is in the Air next the Earth, does not hold here; and further, that Vapours and Exhalations have not fuch Elasticity as Air, but that this is much more rarified and extenuated. But the excellent Mr Fontenelle, Secretary of the Society, explains thefe Phænomena in a quite different Manner, in his History of the Academy, Anno 1708.

He propofes some Experiments performed by the famous Mr De la Hire, and others, from which he infers, that the elastic Force of the Air is increafed when it is mixed with Moisture, or when compounded of Air and aqueous Vapours, the Rarefaction will be greater, than from pure Air; and that therefore on the Tops of Mountains the Air is found more rarified, because many Vapours are carried thither for producing of Rain. The Experiments are these:

They took a flender glass Siphon, one of whose Legs ended in a large hollow Sphere, being open at the other. This

Siphon was full of common Air. and exposed to the external Air coming into the Siphon. The Globe and Siphon was plunged into hot Water, found by previous Experiments to be of the fame degree of Heat as boiling Water, and confequently caufing the same degree of Rarefaction; tho' the Fire underneath were greater or less.

When the Air included in the Globe was rarefied with this degree of Heat, it would be gradually thrust out at the other end of the Siphon; 'till at length the Globe being heated to the utmost, there was lefta very fmall quantity of Air, highly rarefied," that possessed the whole Cavity. Then the Water being removed from the Fire, the Air, as it gradually cooled, which before possessed the whole Globe, being gradually contracted by the Cold, gave way to the Water that entered at the Orifice of the external Leg, and at length, when the Water became entirely cold, it was contracted into a very small Space, whilft the rest of the Globe remained filled with Water. Now by comparing the Space, possessed by the Air, cooled and reduced to it's natural State, and the whole Cavity of the Globe which it had at the utmost Heat, it appears how much the Air was rarefied with that degree of Heat.

the most subtile in the World, and inconstant Motion, and while these are mixed with the Atmosphere,

This Experiment was first made in clear Weather, again in a moist and rainy Season; and at a third time, a little Water was left adhering to the inner Surface of the Globe. And it was observed that the Air condenfed at the end of the Experiment, in the first Case posfessed 3 of the Globe, in the fecond possessed but 2, and in the third  $\frac{1}{3}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Whence Mr Fontenelle concludes, that the Air was more dilated in the fecond Cafe, but particularly in the third, than in the first Case; and therefore as the Air is the more dilated the more moist Vapour is mixed with it; hence he concludes it probable, that for the same Reason, there is a greater Rarefaction on the Tops of Mountains, because the Air that furrounds them is mixed with a greater quantity of Vapour. But there are two Confiderations that render the Argument inconclusive. For first in the two later Experiments, as aqueous Vapours were plentifully mixed with the Air, it might happen that when the Air was condensed, and the Water entered thro' the Siphon into the Globe, these Vapours might again return to Water, and mixing with the other Water partly by the Force of Condenfation, and partly by the mutual Attraction there is betwixt the Particles of Liquors, leave but little true Air included in the very small Space.

Whence it might feem, that the quantity of Air which rarefied with the fame degree of Heat possessed the whole Cavity, was less in the two latter, than in the former Case; and therefore more dilated, fo as to possess

the whole Space.

Again, allowing that the Air was more rarefied in the latter Cases, yet as this was effected by the means of Heat, I do not fee how it follows that because the Vapours mixed with the Air, and agitated by Heat, are more rarefied than Air without Vapours, therefore these Vapours without Heat, fhould have a greater Elafticity

than pure Air.

We shall here add a Table of M. Cassini, junior, made from the foregoing Observations, and exhibiting the Height of the Air from the Surface of the Sea, corresponding to the Sinkings of the Barometer; as also the Spaces increasing in arithmetical Proportion, wherein the Height of the Air increases almost half a Trench League, whilft the Barometer finks in twelfths of an Inch, at a time when, being placed on the Surface of the Sea, it flands at about 28 French Inches or 2923 of English. I use the French Meafures, being unwilling, by reducing them to the English Feet, to disturb the beautiful Series of Proportions by fmall fractional Parts; tho' these may, by the help of mosphere, they separate them, with great Force, and so make more Pores, and these fiery Particles going away, the Particles of Air left by themselves, do

the leffer Table subjoined be easily reduced to English Meafure.

Barometer falling. to each twelfth of an Inch.  Twelfths of an Inch.    Twelfths of an Inch.   Fathoms.   Feet.   Fathoms.   Feet.			answering	Height of	
Twelfths of an Inch.    O	Barometer falling.		b twelfth	above	
Inch.         an Inch.         Fathoms.         Feet. Tathoms.         Tathoms.         Feet. Tathoms.         Tathoms.         Feet. Tathoms.         Tathoms.	or 10.1	of an In	ich.	Surface	•
O         O         O         O         O           1         10         1         10         1           2         10         2         20         3           3         10         3         31         O           4         10         4         41         4           5         10         5         52         3           6         11         0         63         3           7         11         1         74         4           8         11         2         86         O           9         11         3         97         3           10         11         4         109         1           11         11         5         121         O           12         0         133         O         133         O           11         12         1         145         1         1           12         12         2         157         3         1           2         12         3         170         O         0           3         12         4         182         4<	Twelfths of	n ,		71 7	
1		1			
2 10 2 20 3 3 10 3 31 0 4 10 4 41 41 5 10 5 52 3 6 11 0 63 3 7 11 1 74 4 8 11 2 86 0 9 11 3 97 3 10 11 4 109 1 11 11 5 121 0 1 0 12 0 133 0 1 12 1 145 1 2 12 2 157 3 3 12 3 170 0 4 12 4 182 4 5 12 5 195 3 6 13 0 208 3 7 13 1 221 4 8 13 2 235 0 9 13 3 248 3 10 13 4 262 1 11 13 5 276 0 2 0 14 0 290 0 14 1 304 1 2 14 2 318 3 3 14 3 353 0 4 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3	0 0		0		0
3 10 3 31 0 4 10 4 41 4 5 10 5 52 3 6 11 0 63 3 7 11 1 74 4 8 11 2 86 0 9 11 3 97 3 10 11 4 109 1 11 11 5 121 0 12 0 133 0 1 1 12 1 145 1 2 12 2 157 3 3 12 3 170 0 4 12 4 182 4 5 12 5 195 3 6 13 0 208 3 7 13 1 221 4 8 13 2 235 0 9 13 3 248 3 10 13 4 262 1 11 13 5 276 0 2 0 14 0 290 0 1 14 1 2 318 3 3 14 3 353 0 1 14 3 3353 0 1 14 3 3353 0 1 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3		1			I
10		1		P .	3
5       10       5       52       3         7       11       1       74       4         8       11       2       86       0         9       11       3       97       3         10       11       4       109       1         11       11       5       121       0         12       0       133       0         11       12       1       145       1         12       12       157       3         3       12       3       170       0         4       12       4       182       4         5       12       5       195       3         6       13       0       208       3         7       13       1       221       4         8       13       2       235       0         9       13       3       248       3         10       13       4       262       1         11       13       5       276       0         2       0       14       3       3353       0	3	1	3		
7	4	)	4		4
7	5		5	52	3
8   11   2   86   0   0   1   1   1   3   97   3   1   109   1   1   1   1   5   121   0   1   1   1   1   5   121   0   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1	6		0	63	3
8   11   2   86   0   0   1   1   1   3   97   3   1   109   1   1   1   1   5   121   0   1   1   1   1   5   121   0   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1	7		I	74	4
11     11     5     121     0       1     12     1     145     1       1     1     12     1     145     1       2     12     2     157     3       3     12     3     170     0       4     12     4     182     4       5     12     5     195     3       6     13     0     208     3       7     13     1     221     4       8     13     2     235     0       9     13     3     248     3       10     13     4     262     1       11     13     5     276     0       2     0     14     0     290     0       14     1     304     1       2     14     2     318     3       3     14     3     353     0       4     14     4     347     4       4     14     4     347     4       5     14     5     362     3		1		86	0
11     11     5     121     0       1     12     1     145     1       1     1     12     1     145     1       2     12     2     157     3       3     12     3     170     0       4     12     4     182     4       5     12     5     195     3       6     13     0     208     3       7     13     1     221     4       8     13     2     235     0       9     13     3     248     3       10     13     4     262     1       11     13     5     276     0       2     0     14     0     290     0       14     1     304     1       2     14     2     318     3       3     14     3     353     0       4     14     4     347     4       4     14     4     347     4       5     14     5     362     3		1	3	97	3
I         O         I2         O         1333         O           I         I         I2         I         I45         I           2         I2         2         157         3           3         I2         3         170         O           4         I2         4         182         4           5         I2         5         195         3           6         I3         O         208         3           7         I3         I         22I         4           8         I3         2         235         O           9         I3         3         248         3           9         I3         4         262         I           10         I3         4         262         I           2         O         14         O         290         O           11         I4         I         304         I           2         I4         3         333         O           4         I4         3         347         4           4         I4         4         347         4     <	10	1	4		
I     I     12     I     145     I       2     12     2     157     3       3     12     3     170     0       4     12     4     182     4       5     12     5     195     3       6     13     0     208     3       7     13     1     221     4       8     13     2     235     0       9     13     3     248     3       10     13     4     262     1       11     13     5     276     0       2     0     14     0     290     0       1     14     1     304     1       2     14     2     318     3       3     14     3     353     0       4     14     4     347     4       5     14     5     362     3			5		
2 12 2 157 3 3 12 3 170 0 4 12 4 182 4 5 12 5 195 3 6 13 0 208 3 7 13 1 221 4 8 13 2 235 0 9 13 3 248 3 10 13 4 262 1 11 13 5 276 0 2 0 14 0 290 0 1 14 1 304 1 2 14 2 318 3 3 14 3 333 0 4 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3	1 0	12	0	133	0
3 12 3 170 0 182 4 182 4 15 12 5 195 3 208 3 7 13 1 221 4 235 0 9 13 3 248 3 10 13 4 262 1 1 13 5 276 0 290 0 14 0 290 0 0 14 2 14 2 318 3 3 33 3 0 4 14 4 3 347 4 14 5 362 3 3	I I	1			
4     12     4     182     4       5     12     5     195     3       6     13     0     208     3       7     13     1     221     4       8     13     2     235     0       9     13     3     248     3       10     13     4     262     1       11     13     5     276     0       2     0     14     0     290     0       1     14     1     304     1       2     14     2     318     3       3     14     3     353     0       4     14     4     347     4       5     14     5     362     3				157	3
5   12   5   195   3   3   3   3   3   3   3   3   3	3	1		170	
7   13   1   221   4   8   13   2   235   0   9   13   3   248   3   10   13   4   262   1   11   13   5   276   0   2   0   14   0   290   0    1   14   1   304   1   2   14   2   318   3   3   14   3   353   0   4   14   4   347   4   5   14   5   362   3	4				4
7   13   1   221   4   8   13   2   235   0   9   13   3   248   3   10   13   4   262   1   11   13   5   276   0   2   0   14   0   290   0    1   14   1   304   1   2   14   2   318   3   3   14   3   353   0   4   14   4   347   4   5   14   5   362   3	5		5	195	3
8 13 2 235 0 9 13 3 248 3 10 13 4 262 1 11 13 5 276 0 290 0  1 14 1 304 1 2 14 2 318 3 3 14 3 333 0 4 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3					
9	7	13		1	4
2 0 14 0 290 0  1 14 1 304 1 2 14 2 318 3 3 14 3 353 0 4 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3	8	13		235	0
2 0 14 0 290 0  1 14 1 304 1 2 14 2 318 3 3 14 3 353 0 4 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3			3	248	3
2 0 14 0 290 0  1 14 1 304 1 2 14 2 318 3 3 14 3 333 0 4 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3			4		
1 14 1 304 1 2 318 3 3 14 4 3 353 0 4 14 4 3 347 4 5 362 3			5	276	
2 14 2 318 3 3 14 3 353 0 4 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3	2 0	14		-	
3   14   3   333   0   4   14   4   347   4   362   3   362   3	1			304	
4 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3				318	3
4 14 4 347 4 5 14 5 362 3	3		3		
5   14   5   302   3   6   15   0   377   3	4		4	347	4
6 15 0 377 3	5		5		3
	6	1 15	0	377	3

Barometer falling	of an	answering th twelfth Inch.	Height of above to Surface.	the Air, the Sea's
Inch. an Inch	Fathoms.	Feet.	Fathoms.	Feet.
2 7	15	1 2	3 , 2 408	4 0
9	15	3 4	423 439	3 I
3 0	- 15 16	5	455	0
1 2	16	2 3	487 503 520	3
3 4	16	4 5	536 553	4
5 6	17	0	570	3 3 4
7 8 9	17	3	605 622	3
10	17 17 18	5	640 658	0
1	18	1 2	676 694 712	1
3 4	18	3 4	731 749	3 0 4
4 4 5 6	18	5	768 787	3
7 8	19	1 2	806 826	4
9	19	3 4	845 865 885	3 1
5 0	19	5 0	905	0
2	20 20	2 3	925 945 966	3
3 4 5 6	20 20 20	4	986 1007	4
6.	21	5	1028	3

D C 11:	Divisions a	injwering		e Air,
Barometer falling.		twelfth		Sea's
T 101 C	of an.	lnch.	Surface.	
Twelfths of	73 7	77		
Inch. an Inch.	Fathoms.	Fret.	Fathoms.	Feet.
7 8	21	I	1049	4
8	21	2	1071	0
6	21	3	1092	3
10	2 [	4 5	1114	I
11	2 [	5	1136	0
6 0	2.2	0	1158	0
1	22	I	1180	1
2	22	2	1202	3
3	22	3	1225	0
6 4 5 6	22	4	1247	4
5	22	5	1270	3
6	_ 23	0	1293	4 3 3
7	23	1	1316	4
7 8	23	2	1340	Ó
9	23	3	1363	3
10	23	4	1387	1
11	23	3 4 5 0	1411	0
7 0	24	0	1435	0
1	24	1	1459	1
2	24	2	1483	3

Fathoms,

Fathoms, Feet, Inches, and Twelfths of an Inch.

French.	English.	French.	English.
1	1 .15	60	64
2	2 1 5	70	7410
3	3 1 <sup>2</sup> 5	80	8515
4	4145	90	96
5	515	100	10610
6	6.5	200	21315
7 8	7 =	300	320
8	8,1	400	42613
9	9 2	500	53313
10	1010	600	640
20	21 1	700	74613
30	32 ,	800	85315
40	4219	900	960
50	53 13	1000	106675

French.	English.	French.	English.
1	<u>1 5</u>	60	56 4. 65 1 8
3	1 1 6 2 1 2	70 80	75
4	312	90	841 <u>6</u> 931 <u>6</u>
5	516 616	200	18718
7 8	$6_{\frac{16}{16}}$	300 400	281 1 <sup>4</sup> 6 375
9	816 916	500 600	468 <del>12</del> 56218
20	$18\frac{12}{16}$	700	656,4
30 40	28 <sub>16</sub> 37 <sub>16</sub>	80 <b>0</b> 90 <b>0</b>	750 843 <del>1</del> <del>6</del>
40 50	4614	1000	93716

do again come together, and are folded into one another (r).

(r) Mr Hauksbee, in his Physico-Mechanical Experiments, pag. 218. has, by a very curious Experiment, determined the Ratio of the Places possessed by the Air according as it is

differently heated.

ABC (Fig. 25.) is a rectangular Glass Tube, B a little Column of Quickfilver: A the extremity of the Tube, cemented to a Screw, fitted with a Cap, and shut after the settling of the Quickfilver, the Space AB is full of common Air. included betwixt the Screw and the Quickfilver; whilst the part of the Tube BC, is open to the external Air. This Tube Mr Hauksbee placed in a proper Vessel, along with a Thermometer, then pouring in hot Water enough to cover the Ball of the Thermometer, the Quickfilver B moved from or

approached towards A, according as the Air AB was more or less contracted by the Degrees of Heat. And by means of these Observations he made the following Table; wherein the Degrees are the fame with those marked on the Thermometer for measuring the ascent of the Liquor; being the intermediate Degrees betwixt the greatest Heat, and the greatest Cold of our Climate. Column of Parts shews the Proportion of the Spaces wherein the fame Bulk of Air is included according to the Degree of Heat annexed; where it is to be observed, that the Air conflantly and uniformly lofes one 144th part of the Space it occupies in the greatest Heat, every twelve Degrees that the Thermometer finks.

The Dank of the museus

					The P	art of i	the greatest
	Degrees.		Parts.			ace lost.	
	130		144				
	120		143	-	14		
	110		142		72		
	100	\$1000000000, **	141		48		
Above	90	-	140		m 38		<b>*</b>
	80	-	139	-	28	8	
-	70	_	138	p-70	2.1		
	60	-	137			5	
	50	-	136		1.8		
	40		135	-	16		
	30	-	134		14	4	
	20	dare has sample	133	David Service	13	9	
	10	-	132	Charles of the Lot	1 2		
Freezing	00	-	131	-	- 1 t	8	
Point.	10		130	-	10	3	
70. 1	20	-	129		• 5	6	
Below.	30		128	-	9		
	40	-	127	-	19191811	4	furin's
	50	-	126	100 0 0	क्र	-	Appendix.
						CO	ROL-

#### COROLLARY.

THEREFORE the Height of the Atmosphere is not constant, but increaseth and decreaseth, at Mid-day greatest, and Mid-night least, and of a mean Height at Sun-rising or setting, as in *Proposition* xiv.

#### PROPOSITION IX.

To make a Thermometer, or Thermoscope, by which we may try the Changes in the Air, as to Heat and Cold.

LET us take a Glass with a long round Neck and round Body LH (Fig. 26.), let it be fastened to a Board MNPQ, with it's Neck downward, and let there be a Vessel so filled with coloured Water, put under it, that the Part of the Neck LF may be under the Water, and chuse a Day of a middle Constitution between Heat and Cold, with which the Heat and Cold at other times may be compared; and let the Water be poured into the Vessel at that time, when the Air growing cold the Water will ascend above F of it's own accord; for the Air that before filled the Space F A being condenfed by the Cold takes up less Space. On the other hand, the Air being made more hot, the Water will come down from F towards L; for the Air FH being rarified takes up more Space.

AND the Degrees of increase and decrease of Heat and Cold may be known, if you divide the

Line F A into a certain Number of Parts.

OR without a Vessel underneath, let the Glass LH have, at the end L, a hollow Ball of Glass, with a small Hole on one Side, filled with Water, Ff 3 and

and the Degrees of Heat and Cold will be shown by the Rising and Falling of the Water (s).

### PROPOSITION X.

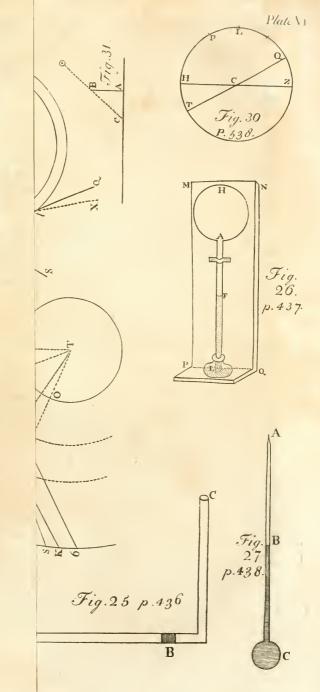
A clear Air may be so rarified by a great Fire as to take up seventy times a greater Space than before, and so condensed in a Wind-Gun as to take up only the sixtieth part of the sormer Space; but the Heat of the Sun will not rarify so much, nor the ordinary Cold condense so much.

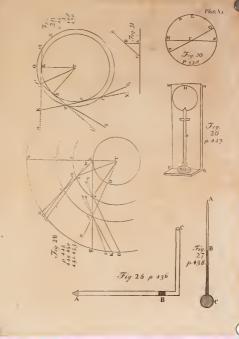
THIS is proved from the *Æolipile*, which if it be taken when white with Heat, it will then receive thirteen Ounces of Water; but the same *Æolipile* when cold, or in it's natural State, will take thirteen and half a Dram, and that Part which contains the half Dram is the Difference of the two Spaces, and is almost the seventieth Part of the whole Cavity of the *Æolipile*.

(s) This kind of Thermometer was thought to flew the Heat or Coldness of the Air, with fufficient Accuracy before the discovery of the Barometer. But after it was found that the Air was not of one constant Weight, but differed at different Times, it was remarked, that the Water included in the Glass Neck, according as the Weight of the Air increased or diminished, and reeking upon the Water contained in the Vessel, must also afcend or defcend tho' the Degree of Heat should remain the fame. Whence the Structure of the Thermometer was necesfarily altered. Most at present use a similar Tube ABC (Fig. 27.) ending in a Ball at the

Bottom. This they fill to a proper Height with Spirit of Wine, suppose to B, then close the Instrument by melting it's Extremity A, at the flame of a Lamp. The Spirit of Wine, being now rarified or condensed, according to the different Temperature of the Air, marks, by it's ascent or descent in the Tube, the greater or less Degree of Heat. In making this Thermometer they observe such a Proportion in the Capacity of the Ball to the Stem, that the Spirit of Wine may neither fill the whole Tube in the greatest Degree of Heat, nor all fink into the Ball in the greatest Cold.

Jurin's Appendix.





#### PROPOSITION XI.

Why in Places of the Frigid Zone, when they have not the Sun rising and setting, the Air is some Days clear, but gross and cloudy for the most part.

THE Cause of that thick Cloudiness, which is almost constant, is, the small Heat of the subterraneous Earth, or that comes from the Sun, or Moon, (which remains for several Days and Nights above the Horizon whilst the Sun is below,) and other Stars; which Heat, being weak, is not able to dispel the Cloud; and some Days being clear, is not from the gross Vapours being made small, but from their falling down on the Earth, or being driven away by the Wind.

## PROPOSITION XII.

Why fometimes in the greatest Cold in Winter the Air is subtile and clear; whereas Cold condenses and contracts the Air.

moderate Cold does not make the Air clear but cloudy, for by the small Heat that is joined with the Cold, the Vapours are raised but not dispelled; but a vehement excessive Cold renders the Air clear, for two Reasons; 1. It makes the gross Vapours in the Air more gross; and so they fall down, and the Air is thus cleared. 2. Because the Pores of the Earth are shut up, and the Vapours are not exhaled from it, that render the Air turbid and cloudy. The Sea indeed is not frozen with Cold; yet it's Particles are made so thick with Cold, that it doth not so readily send out Exhalations, tho' it doth a great many, being of another Nature than the Earth.

Ff4

PRO-

#### PROPOSITION XIII.

Why when we look thro' the Air in an horizontal Line it appears thicker and more cloudy than that above, or that in which we breathe.

THE Cause is twofold; the first because the Air near the Horizon is really more cloudy; the other is a deceit in our Sight; for the Eye takes in the Distances of the Parts of an Arch in the Horizon, by very small Angles; as it does the Distances of Pillars in a long Row: and as we judge those that are distant to be near, so the distant Particles of Air are judged to be joined close; but the Distance of the Particles of Air that is higher, the Eye sees under great Angles and apprehends them the better.

THE fame is the Cause why the Air at a Distance appears to be cloudy; but when we approach to it, it does not seem so cloudy.

#### PROPOSITION XIV.

Whether the Atmosphere or Air be always of the same Height in all Places; or if it's Figure be spherical.

THAT it is not of the same but of very different Heights, appears in that the Sun is only vertical to one Place at once, and sends it's Rays obliquely to other Places; and so more weakly the more they are remote from the Sun, or the nearer the Poles: and therefore the power of the Sun is different in different Places, and must raise the Vapours differently; they are highest directly under the Sun, and lowest in the opposite Point, and in a middle Height at the Pole, so that the Air is of an oval Figure.

YET the contrary, that the Height is the fame in all Places, feems more probable; tho' the Vapours are more elevated in fome Places than others; yet because the Air is fluid and by it's Gravity tends downward, therefore the higher Parts press those below; and those again others sideways, 'till all the Parts come to be alike high; and thus it's spherical Figure is proved the same way as that of the Water is proved by *Archimedes*, Chap. xiii. for the Suppositions here are the same as there; which if salse the Demonstration sails.

DES Cartes also makes it oval, for a particular

Reason; see Chap. xiv.

### PROPOSITION XV.

The Condensation or Rarifaction of the Air doth not alter it's Height.

FOR not the whole, but a part only is condensed or raristed, sometimes here, sometimes there; which doth not alter the Height in one Place more than another: only there may be a greater Condensation in one Part than in another: which can alter the Height but very little.

# PROPOSITION XVI.

The Altitude of the Atmosphere or Air is not only the same in different Places, but is always the same both Summer and Winter.

FOR tho' the Heat in our Summer doth attenuate our Air, and raise it more than in Winter, yet because then there is Winter in another Place, the Air there is less raised, and therefore a Part of our Air will flow there: and when our Air is low by the Cold, the Air of another Place that is hotter

will move to us, 'till the whole Air be equally distant from the Center.

AND the fame may be faid as to Day and Night; for while at Night it is condensed with us, and is low, it rarifies more in another Place, and moves to our Air 'till it makes a spherical Figure; and because all things are every where equal, the Height will continue the same every where; and tho' it may rarify and condense more in one Place and Time than another, yet the Difference being small will not much alter the Altitude; as we faid in the preceding Proposition.

THE fame may be faid of the Clouds, Rain, or Vapours, in our or another Place, as from these a greater or less Altitude seems to arise: but I anfwer, there is fcarce any time in which it doth not rain, or a Cloud fall, in fome Place or other; and therefore while it rains in one Place the Air becomes no less than it was, because it rained before in another Place, and so it comes all to the fame thing, and the quantity of the Air is neither

increased nor diminished.

### PROPOSITION XVII.

The colder the Air is, the thicker: and therefore it is for the most part colder in Winter than Summer (in any particular Place), and likewise in the Night more than in the Day, and the gross Exhalations from the Water in the Winter-time, increase that Denfity, especially in the Evening and Morning.

THE Truth of the Proposition is clear from the preceding; nor is it any Objection, that a Part of the hotter Air moves where it is colder, and more low; for it is not that but some neighbouring Air that moves to the Place, because of the continual Protrusion, or Pressure; or tho' it came

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography. 443 itself, yet by coming there, it would become cold.

## PROPOSITION XVIII.

There are commonly reckoned three Regions of the Air, of which that is in the middle where the Snow, Hail, and Rain are formed; the first is that in which we live reaching to the middle Region; the third is from the middle Region to the utmost Bounds of the Atmosphere, even to the siery Region, as the Aristotelians speak.

THE middle Region is colder than the first and third, which are counted hotter: because the third contains more subtile, siery, and sulphureous Exhalations which go up into it above the Place of the Particles of Water, or are thrust there being lighter. The Aristotelians say this hotter because nearer to the fiery Sphere, and colder than the first; because the Rays falling, join with those that are respected from the Earth, and so double the Heat. Moreover the Particles of the subterraneous Fire coming out of the Earth are dissipated there in the lower Region; and the middle Region being without all these Advantages must needs be colder.

#### PROPOSITION XIX.

The nearer a Place is to the Pole, or the more distant from the Place where the Sun is vertical, the Place of the Air in which Rain, Snow, and Hail, is formed is the nearer the Earth.

THE Cause is, that the Rays fall more obliquely on the Places about the Poles than on those about the Equator, and therefore being refracted are far removed from the Perpendicular, and thus

the

the Heat becomes less, and the watery Vapours contract into less Room, and by joining form the watery Meteors.

### COROLLARY.

THE Superficies of the first Region is oval, or rather elliptical, or like a Spheroid, bulging out under the *Torrid Zone*.

# PROPOSITION XX.

The nearer a Place is to the Pole, the third Region (in which the more subtile and sulphureous parts move up and down) begins further from the Earth.

FOR that Part of the Atmosphere which is nearer the Pole contains sewer subtile and sulphureous Particles; for the Sun brings sewer of them thither from the Earth. And a less Number being raised there than in the Temperate Zone, and sewer in the Temperate than in the Torrid Zone, and the utmost Bounds of the third Region equally distant from the Earth's Center by Proposition xvi; therefore the beginning of that Region under the Frigid Zone, is further from the Earth's Center than it's beginning in the Torrid or Temperate Zone.

#### COROLLARY.

THE Superficies bounding the fecond Region is as a Spheroid bulging in the *Frigid Zone*. These are all to be shown to Students by a Diagram.

# PROPOSITION XXI.

The Rays of the Sun, Moon, and Stars, do not some directly from the Heavens thro the Air, to our

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography. 44

our Eyes, but turn a little aside from the strait Course, as soon as they enter the Air; which is called, by Writers in Optics, their Refraction.

THAT Part of Optics which treats of the Refraction of Light is very fine. Experience testifies, that the Rays coming from any Object out of one Medium into another more gross, or more fine, do refract or turn aside: the Thing is plain from a common Experiment. Take a Vessel, to the Bottom of which fix a Globe of Gold, or Brass, or Piece of Money, then go from the Vessel 'till you cannot see the Money for the Sides of the Vessel, then fill the Vessel with Water and you will see the Money; which shews, that the Rays coming from the Money as they go from the Water into the Air turn from their Course, before they can come to the Eye; which is called Refraction, because the Line is broke, as it were, coming from Water to Air.

THUS, Let the Center of the Earth be T, (Fig. 28) and L the Eye on it's Surface, and drf the Surface of the Atmosphere, or Air; and therefore no Ray can come to the Eye at L, which is under L fg for the Rays below would fall on the rising Part of the Earth Lo; and thus no Star can appear by a strait Ray 'till it come to the horizontal Line L fg, but the Stars appear before that, while they are under Lg: for Example in S, from which no Ray can come strait to the Eye, but must be refracted; i. e. the Line or Ray S f coming into a thicker Medium at S, on the Atmosphere, is refracted and runs on in the Line f L, tho' it was directed to n, and thus the Star appears before it comes to the horizontal Line L fg.

THUS the Star in f is not feen by the direct Ray f, but by the refracted Ray rL, tho' it was

directed at the first to m; and therefore the Star at suppears higher by the Refraction than it really

is, it's Height being the Angle r L g or the Arch xg, as if it were in the Point x when it is really

in /.

THIS being the Law of Refraction, that the Rays going into a groffer Medium, turn to the perpendicular at the Point of Incidence, as here f is the Point of Incidence, and T f the Perpendicular drawn thro' f, thro' the Superficies drf; therefore the Ray S f n will be refracted towards f T that from f n it may become f L.

AND thus the Line or Ray rm becomes rL; but the contrary happens when the Ray goes into a fine Medium, for then it goes from the Perpen-

dicular.

BESIDE it is the Nature of Refraction, that the Rays falling perpendicularly on the Superficies of another Medium, are not refracted, but only those that fall obliquely, and those are the more refracted the more obliquely they fall. Thus the Rays ST, /T, MdT being perpendicular to the Superficies are not refracted, but the Rays Sf, fr that fall obliquely are, and Sf more than fr.

FROM whence it also follows, and is manifest by Experience, that the nearer the Stars are to the Horizon, their Rays are the more refracted, and the higher they are, the less; and Astronomers have found, that when a Star is twenty Degrees high, the Refraction is infensible, tho' there is still

a fmall Refraction.

A N D Mathematicians, skilled in Optics, have by Observations found the Laws of Refraction of all oblique Rays, and that in every Medium there is a constant fixed Proportion between the Sine of the Angle of Incidence and of the refracted Angle (i. e.) between the Angle nf T and Lf T, the Angle nfL being the Angle of Refraction; and so in the Refraction of the Ray fr m. Therefore the fame Proportion that is between the Sine of the Angle

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography.

447

Angle T f n and the Sine of the Angle T f L, the fame is between the Sine of the Angle T r m and the Sine of T r L. Therefore if the Quantity of Refraction be known by Observation at one Elevation of a Star, the Quantity of Refraction for all other Elevations may be known (t).

PRO-

(t) It is of great Moment in the making of exact Aftronomical Observations, to know the Refraction which the Rays of Light fuffer in paffing thro' our Atmosphere. This was determined by the learned Mr Lowthorp, by an Experiment made before the Royal Society, and shewn to be as the Sine of the Angle of Incidence and Refraction. See Philof. Trans. N° 257. But this Experiment being questioned by the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, who had not the fame Success, [fee their Memoirs for the Year 1700.] Mr Lowthorp repeated it at the Request of the Royal Society, and Mr Hauskbee also performed it with much greater Accuracy. See Hauskbee's Physico Mechanical Experiments, p. 175, and found the Proportion betwixt the Angle of Incidence and Refraction was as 1000000 to 999736; fo that the refractive Power of the Air to bend a Ray of Light from it's strait Course in coming out of a Vacuum, or the Difference of the faid Sines, proportionable to the Sines themselves, is 2641000000Parts And the Experiment being feveral Times repeated, he found that this refractive Power exactly answered to the Proportion of the different Denfities of

the Air thro' which the Ray passed, so as to be twice or thrice as large when the Air had twice or thrice the Denfity. Whence we have an eafy Rule for finding the Refraction in any Time or Place, as being always correspondent to the Density of the Air. But the Denfity of the Air may be measured by a joint Observation of the Barometer and Thermometer. For as the Spaces, possessed by the Air. are reciprocally proportional to the Weights that compress it fice the Note upon Proposition 7. above] and it's Denfity reciprocally as the Space it poffesses, the Density of the Air must be proportional to the Weight that compresses it, or the Weight of the incumbent Atmosphere; that is, the Height of the Quickfilver in the Barometer. And this will be the Case if the Heat of the Air remain the fame. But if the Height of the Barometer be known, the Denfity of the Air is reciprocally proportional to the Spaces marked against the Degrees of the Thermometer in the Tube above. [See the Note to Proposition 8.] Whence it follows, according to the known Theorem of compounding Ratios, that the Denfity of the

#### PROPOSITION XXII.

The Atmosphere or Air causes the Sun and other Stars to appear before they come to the Horizon at rising, or after they are passed it, at setting; and appear higher than they really are, while they are under twenty Degrees of Elevation.

THE Cause is sufficiently explained in the preceding Proposition. We may add some Experiments or natural Phænomena. When the Dutch wintered in Nova Zembla, the Sun appeared to them sixteen Days before it came to the Horizon, that is, when under the Horizon sour Degrees, and that in a clear Sky; and samous Astronomers have

the Air is always as the direct Ratio of the Heights of the Barometer, compounded with the reciprocal Ratio of the Spaces marked against the Degrees of the Thermometer.

Spaces marked against the Degrees of the Thermometer. ' For Example, at the time the Experiment was made, the Height of the Barometer was 29 Inches, 71 decimal · Parts, and the Thermometer at 60, over against which the Space of 137 Parts is marked; Then, it must be enquired, what the Denfity of the Air is, when the Ba-" rometer is up at 30 Inches, and the Thermometer 50 degr. below the Line of Freezs ing, then the Column of Air in the former Experiments will not possess above the

Space of 126 Parts; fo that
the Denfity of the Air fought
for, will be to the Denfity

of the Air at the Time the

Experiment was made, as  $30 \times 137$ , to 29,  $7\frac{1}{2} \times 126$ ; or as 4110 to 3748.5.

And hence may be understood the Reason why the Dutch who wintered in Nova Zembla, found fo great a Refraction. See Sect. vi. Chap. 19. Prop. 20. For hence we understand, according to the Observations of the French and others, (see Hist. de l' Acad. Scien. 1700, 1706, and La Mesure de la Terre) that the Refractions are greater towards the Poles than near the Equator, and greater in the fame Place in the Morning or Evening than at Noon; tho' there be no Difference perceived in the Height of the Barometer. For all this feems to proceed from the fame Caufe viz. the greater Density of the Air by reason of Cold.

Jurin's Appendix.

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography.

449

found, with Tycho, that, with us, when the Air is clear in the Morning the Sun is feen elevated above the Horizon thirty four Minutes, while 'tis yet under the Horizon and it's Limb but just touche ing it, and as long in the Evening.

THUS the Virgin's Spike appears when 'tis thirty two Minutes under the Horizon, for it feems to rife when the Lion's Tail is thirty four Degrees, thirty Minutes high, and on the fame Point. But these two Stars are distant thirty five Degrees two Mi-

nutes.

### PROPOSITION XXIII.

The grosser the Atmosphere is, the Refraction is the greater, (other things being alike) i. e. there being the same Elevation of the Star, and the same Height of the Air.

THUS the Angle nfL, (Fig. 28.) which is the Angle of Refraction, is the greater, or the refracted Ray fL comes nearer to fT the thicker the Atmosphere is, which those skilled in Optics have found in all kinds of Mediums.

# PROPOSITION XXIV.

The grosser the Air is, the more the Star is under the Horizon when it first appears.

THE Ray Lf(Fig. 28.) is refracted and first shows the Star, and LfT is the refracted Angle; and Sfn being the incident Ray, nfT will be the Angle of Incidence, and nfL the Refraction.

LET us then suppose the Air fdLO to be grosser than when it made the Refraction nfL, it will thus make the Angle of Refraction greater, viz. of L, and the incident Ray will be Kfe. There-

VOL. I.

fore the Star being in K, the Ray Kf will be refracted, that the refracted f L may shew the Star; but when the Air was not fo gross the Star was first feen when in S.

# PROPOSITION XXV.

The lower the Air, the Star is the more under the Horizon when it first appears (other things being alike) i. e. there being the same Clearness or Thickness in the Air, or is seen the sooner or later before it rife.

FOR, supposing the Air low, the refracted Angle TfL (Fig. 28.) will be greater; for Example, if the Altitude of the Air be T 4 the Angle refracted (according to the first Ray that comes to L) will be  $T \not= I_n$ . Let then 4, 9 be drawn parallel with f n; then, by the Hypothesis in Prop. xxi. as the Sine of one refracted Angle T f L is to the Sine of another refracted Angle T4L, (for the Air differs only in height by fupposition and not in thickness) so is the Sine of the Angle of Incidence nf T to the Sine of the Angle of Incidence 3, 4, T, for the refracted Ray 4, L, and the incident Ray 3, 4, 6. But the Sine of the Angle T 4 L hath to the Sine T 49, the same Proposition which the Sine of TfL hath to T f n, as is easily demonstrated by the Figure for this Propolition. Therefore the Sine of the Angle T, 4, L hath a greater Proportion to the Sine of T, 4, 9, than the same Sine T 4 L hath to the Sine T, 4, 3; therefore the Sine T 4, 9 is less than the Sine T, 4, 3; and so the Angle T 4, 3 is greater than the Angle T, 4, 9, and 3, 4, L than 9, 4, L, that is, than nf L; and therefore the Line 4, 3 drawn out, viz. 3, 4, 6 the incident Ray for the refracted one 4, L will fall under S f, and the Star

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography. 45 i Star will be in 6 to cause the refracted Ray 4 L s

Star will be in 6 to cause the refracted Ray 4 L; and thus 'tis lower than when in S where the Altitude of the Air was T f.

# PROPOSITION XXVI.

A Star may have a different Refraction even in the same Place, provided the Density of Air be different.

THE Problem is better put thus: The Altitude of a Star and it's Refraction being given, viz. that which is made at a given Height; and there being given likewise another Altitude of the Air; to find the Density of the Air requisite to cause the same Refraction in that Altitude as was in the other. For Example, in the Altitude of the Air Tf, (Fig. 28.) the Ray Sf makes the Angle of Refraction nf L; if then there be another Altitude of the Air T 4, and yet the Refraction of the Star S in the same Place of the incident Ray 6, 4 which is almost parallel with Sf, because of the great Distance; 'tis asked whether the Refraction 3, 4, L may be equal to the Refraction nf L; and if it may, whether or no must the other Air be thicker or thinner, and in what Proportion?

I answer it may be, if the other given Altitude of the Air be greater than the former T f, the Density or Thickness of this second Air must be greater; but if the other given Altitude be less as T, 4, then the Thickness of the second Air must be less, or have a greater Rarefaction in it, and how

much that must be is known from this.

1. FIND the Angle T 9 L (having T 4 and T L) and T f L, then the Sine of the Angle T 4 L, and the Sine of the Angle T 4 3 (which is the Angle of Incidence of the Ray 3, 4, 6) thence is found the Proportion of the Density of the Air, to that of the Ethereal Matter, from which the inci-

dent Ray comes. In the same manner, let the Sines of the Angle Tfn and TfL be taken, and they will shew the Proportion of the Density of the first Air to that of the Ethereal Matter; and by comparing these Proportions it may be known, how much more dense or rare the Air of the lesser height should be.

YET properly speaking 'tis not the same Refraction, for the incident Rays are not equally elevated above the Superficies of the Mediums.

#### PROPOSITION XXVII.

If the Air of one Place be both thicker and lower than the Air of another, the Sun, and the rest of the Stars, will be the more depressed, under the Horizon of the former Place, when they first begin to appear than in the latter Place.

THE Demonstration of this Proposition is manifest from *Prop.* xxv. and xxvi; and it also thence follows, that if the Air be lower and grosser in Places of the *Frigid Zone* than in the *Temperate* and *Torrid Zone*, the Sun may be seen there longer before the rising and longer after the setting, than in other Places that are higher and more subtile; for when 'tis more depressed under the Horizon, and comes to it more obliquely and more slowly as in the *Frigid Zone*, it must then be seen much sooner in the *Frigid than* in the *Torrid Zone*. But 'tis doubtful whether the Air be lower in the *Frigid Zone*; and tho' the Sun be seen sooner before it rise, whether that may be only on Account of the grosses of the Air, of which afterward.

### PROPOSITION XXVIII.

If the Air of one Place be grosser and higher than that of another; it may be on account of the greater Thickness of the Air in one Place than the other, that they do not see the Stars before they rise, when they are a good way under the Horizon. And such also may be the great Thickness of the Air that thereby they shall see the Stars before they rise, tho they have the same Depression: Yea the Air may be so thick as to show the Stars when in a much greater Depression under the Horizon of one Place than of another.

YEA the thickness of the Air will cause a much greater Depression than the lowness of the Air; and for the Resractions in *Nova Zembla* there is required a great Height of the Air with some thickness.

#### PROPOSITION XXIX.

It is impossible that the Refractions of a Star in different Altitudes should be equal (if the thickness of the Air be the same) to the Refractions of the same Star in the same Altitudes, if the Air be either bigher or lower, or thicker or thinner.

WE shewed, in the preceding Proposition, that if in the Altitude of the Air T f, (Fig. 28.) the incident Ray S fn make the Refraction n f L, the Ray 6, 4, which, because of the great Distance, may be reckoned parallel with S f, the Rays from the same Point, we say the Ray 6, 4 may, in another Altitude of the Air, as T 4, make the same Refraction 3 4 L equal to n f L, if the Air 4 o L e be thinner than the Air fo L d; now 'tis demanded if G g 3

that may be in two Altitudes of a Star. For Example, suppose the Star in S, the Air fo Ld, and the Air 40 Le be fo disposed as to make the same Refraction, whether in another Altitude as S, and in the same Atmosphere fr dLo and 4 e Lo, the Refraction may be again equal, or the fame  $m r \perp$ ?

And I fay that it cannot be.

FOR if a Circle be described with the Center T bounding the Air of another Altitude cutting Lrin 2, then 2 L will be the refracted Ray in the other Air, by which the Star f is feen; for the Ray 2 L must be the same with r L, as the same apparent Altitude of the Star x g is supposed, or the Angle r L f. Moreover, let the incident Ray, answering that refracted one, be drawn thro' 2 as 72 w, which will be parallel with frm, if the Refraction L 2 w were equal to the Refraction Lrm; for if T 2 be also drawn, T 2 w will be the Angle of Incidence, and T 2 L the Angle refracted, and w 2 L the Refraction.

THEREFORE as the Sine of 3 4 T to the Sine L4T, fo is the Sine of w2T to the Sine of

L 2 T.

A N D as the Sine of nfT to the Sine of LfT, so is the Sine of mr L to the Sine of LrT, and 34 L being equal to nf L, the Angle w 2 T is not equal to mr L, or w 2 is not parallel with mr. This requires a longer Demonstration than can be given here, as belonging to Geometry, which will be evident from the following Algebraic Work.

# PROPOSITION XXX.

Having in two Altitudes of a Star observed the Refractions, to find from thence the Altitude of the Air, and the Proportion of their Densities, or the Law of Refraction in that Air.

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography.

455

THE Refraction of a Star is equal to the Difference between the observed Altitude, and the true Altitude, which is known by Calculation, and thus Refractions are easily known. Then to our purpose:

IF it were to be folved Geometrically, it would

be brought to this Problem:

LET the Star be in S (Fig. 29.) fending out

the Ray Sf, and the Refraction nf L.

A N D in the Altitude f g it's Refraction m r L. T HEREFORE in the Circle d r f, who'e Center is T, there is given T L the Semidiameter of the Earth, and drawing T r, T f, L f, L r, the Angles T l f and T L r may be had; the latter being made of the Star's Altitude, and a right Angle, and the Angles n f L and m r L are given; and we know that the Proportion of the Sine of the Angle m r T to the Sine of L r T. From these to find the Semidiameter T f or T r, and the Proportion of the Sine of n f T to the Sine L f T, or to find the Angle T f L. Which will give the Proportion of the Sines.

THE Algebraic Solution is fomething difficult, but the common fynthetic way requires many Lemmata to be premifed, which the former Solution doth not. Let us therefore produce the analytic Solution, to flew that it will confirm the preceding Proposition. Let the Sine of the right

Angle TLF, or

The Radius be b and Sine T L r c Sine n f L d Sine comp. g Sine m r L b Sine comp. k Sine T f L

Let us find the Angle LfT; for this being known TF, and all the rest are known.

FIRST, because there is given the Sine of both the Angles TfL and Lfn, the Sine of the whole Angles nfT is given, viz. if the Sine of each Angle be multiplied into the Co-Sine of the other, and the Sum of their Products divided by the Radius. Thus the Sine of the Angle nfT will

be  $\frac{ag + d\sqrt{bb - aa}}{b}$ .

MOREOVER, seeing the Sine TLf is to the Sine TfL (So is Tf to TL or Tr to TL) fo is the Sine TLr to the Sine TrL; that Sine Tr L will be  $\frac{c a}{h}$ . And feeing there is given also the Sine Mr L, let there be found, according to the former Rule, the Sine of the whole m r T, which is  $\frac{k c a - |-b\sqrt{b} + c c a a}{b b}$ . Thus we have the Sine of four Angles LfT, nfT, LrT, mrT, for we know they are proportional fince as a:  $\frac{ag-b\sqrt{bb-aa}}{b}:\frac{ca}{b}:\frac{kca-b\sqrt{b4-ccaa}}{bb}$ And therefore  $cga + cd\sqrt{bb - aa} = kca + b$  $\sqrt{b_4 - ccaa}$ ; or if  $\frac{b_4}{cc}$  be = mm, and g - k = n; then, after due Reduction, it will be na + d $\sqrt{bb-aa}=b\sqrt{mm-aa}$ . And both Sides fquar $ed bbmm - bbaa - nnaa - ddbb + d^2a^2 =$ 2  $nad\sqrt{bb-aa}$ . For  $p^{+}$  write bbmm-ddbb, and q q for d d - b b - n n, and fquare again  $p^+ + qqaa = 2nad\sqrt{bb-aa}$ , and it will be  $p^8 + q a^4 + 2 p^4 q q a a = 4 n n b b d d a a - 4 n n d d a^4$ . And dividing by 4 nd d-q4, and substituting other Sines

Sines  $a^4 = rraa - s4$ . And  $aa = \frac{1}{2}rr + \frac{1}{2}$ 

 $\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}}r^{+} - S^{+}$  or  $a = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}}r^{+} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}}r^{+} - S^{+}$ .

FROM this Equation it appears that the Problem is determined, and that a, which is the Sine of the Angle Tf L, may be found by extracting the square Root. And from thence 'tis found, that two Refractions are sufficient to find the Altitude of the Air TF, and the Rule of Proportion between them; which I take Notice of because I see Kepler, in his Epitome of Astronomy p. 65, takes three Refractions, tho' he did not try this Method himself.

THE Resolution of this Problem may be also had by the Rule of Position, by assuming T f in a certain Proportion to T L, and trying if, by that Assumption, the Sines of the four Angles TfL, Tfn, TrL, Trm will be proportional.

THEREFORE, in the Triangle fLT, let there be found the Angle TfL from having fT, TL, and TLf. And likewise in the Triangle TLr, find

the Angle T r L from having T r, TL, and TL r. LET there be then taken the Sine of the Angles TfL, Tfn, TrL, Trm; and let there be a fourth Proportional taken to the Sines TfL, T fn, T r L. And if T rm be equal to this fourth Proportional, then the assumed Height of the Air Tf will be just; but if the Sine Trm be greater than the fourth Proportional, then Tf must be taken less; but if less, then it must be taken more; and fo always 'till they become equal.

#### EXAMPLE.

SUPPOSE the Virgin's Spike, or any other Star, or the Sun, to be feen in the Horizon Lf when 2

when 32 Minutes under it, as in S; thus the Re-

fraction nf L is 32.

THEN when the Sun hath the apparent Altitude  $g \times 1$  degr. 22 min. or the true Altitude 1 degr. the Refraction Lrm is 22 min.

THE Semidiameter TL is 860 German Miles. But suppose it 10000, and the Altitude of to be 5

of these Parts, viz.  $\frac{5}{10000}$  or  $\frac{1}{2000}$  of the Semidia-

meter TL; that is, about 3 of a Mile.

THEREFORE in the Triangle TLf, the

Radius being 10,000,000.

AS fT to TL, so is the Sine TLf to the Sine TfL.

2001: 2000:: 10,000,000: 9,995,992, the

Sine of 88 degr. 22 min. 40 sec.

A ND thus T f n will be 88 degr. 54 min. 40 fee. whose Sine is 9,998,200.

AGAIN, in the Triangle Tr L.

AS Tr: TL, so is the Sine of the Angle TLr to the Sine TrL.

2001: 2000:: 9,997,155: 9,992,159, the Sine of 87 degr. 43 min. 40 fec.

THEREFORE Trm is 88 degr. 5 min.

40 sec. whose Sine is 9,994,500.

THEN let there be found a fourth Proportional to the Sines of TfL, Tfn, TrL.

AS TfL: Tfn:: TrL.

AS 9,995,992: 9,998,200:: 9,992,159: 9,994,366.

A N D with that fourth Number compare the Sine of the Angle T r m, which is 9,994,500.

A N D we find that this Sine is very near to that fourth Number; and therefore the affumed Altitude of the Air, viz.  $\frac{1}{6}$  of a Mile, is not far from the Truth. And if any one defire it more accurately, he may affume another Altitude, and work the fame way, 'till the Sine of Trm be

nearer

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography. 459

nearer to the fourth Proportional; or, by the Rule of False, having it twice too little, you may find the true Altitude as near as possible, for it cannot be found perfectly true; because a small Difference in the Sines changes it very much if it be but half a Minute: and besides this the Canon of Sines must be very exact.

WE conclude therefore, that the Height of the Air is about the 2000 part of the Semidiameter of the Earth, which is 1,633,190 Perches; and the Altitude of the Air 816 Perches, one Perch being twelve *Rhinlandifh* Feet: but 'tis better allowed to be half a *German* Mile, for the Refraction Lfn was found, by Tycho, to be greater, and may be thirty fix or forty eight Minutes; and then the Height of the Air will be one Mile.

THE Height of the Air being known, there is also known the Proportion of the Density of the Air to that of the Ethereal Matter, or the Law of Refraction, in that Air making such Refractions in such Altitudes, i. e. the Proportion of the Sine TfL to the Sine Tfn, before found, is

the Proportion fought.

AS 9,995,992 to 9,998,200. And the Reason why these Refractions are so small is, because we supposed a clear Air, not much differing from the Ethereal Matter in Density; as some have

imagined.

MOREOVER, whether the Altitude of the Air be the same in all Places and Times may be known; if we use the same way two Refractions at two Altitudes in a different Air and Time. And that Students may understand these Secrets of Nature, I have, that they may try a Calculation, set down Examples from Tycho's Observations, who observed the Refractions of the Sun and Moon for every Degree of their Height; and because they differ from the Observations of Lansherg, made

made in a different Air (if made at all), I will also add them.

	ID-C	D .C. = 3:	D.C - 01.		
Damman	Refraction of the	Refraction of the	Refraction		
Degrees of Altitude.	oun, accoraing	Moon, according	ana Ivioon,	according	
	to Tycho.	to Tycho.	to Lansher		
Degrees.	Minutes.	Minutes.	Minutes.	Seconds.	
0	34 26	33	34		
I		25	26		
2	20	20	21		
3	17	17	18		
4	15	15	15	45	
5	14	14	14	0	
	13	14	12	30	
7 8	12	13	11	15	
8	11	12	10	5	
9	10	11	9	5	
10	10	11		15	
1 1	9	10	7	35	
12	9	10	7	5	
13	8	9 8	6	40	
14	8	8	6	19	
15	7	8	6	0	
16	7	77	5	42	
17	6	7	5	27	
18	6	7 6 6	5	7	
19	5		4	50	
20	44	5	4	33	
21	4	4	4	16	
22	3 3	3 3	4	0	
23	3	3	3	44	
24	3	3	3	28	
25	2	2	3	2	
26	2	2	2	56	
27	2	2	2	40	
28	2	2	2	24	
29	2	2	2	9	
30	1	τ	I	54	
3 1	1	I	1	39	
32	1	I	I	24	
33	I	I	1	9	
34	I	I	0	55	
35	I	1	0	41	
36	I	1	0	27	
37 38	0	1	0	13	
30	0	1	1 0	0	
LANSBERG					

LANSBERG fets down the fame Refractions for the Sun and Moon; and Tycho makes a small Difference near the Horizon, those of the Sun greater, and at the fifth Degree equal; and afterward the Moon's Refractions fomewhat greater than those of the Sun: I confess I do not see why, except it be attributed to the weakness of the Moon's Light. And moreover, Tycho omitted Seconds, which are not to be neglected, if they approach near fixty, for they are of use in calculating the Height of the Air. But as for the Refractions of all the Stars they are equal, or very little different, if in one Air; but if the Air be groffer, the Refractions are greater. For Example, the Dutch, at Nova Zembla, found in Winter that the Sun began to appear after a Night of some Months, when it was 4 Degr. under the Horizon, at least it's Limb; therefore the Refraction mf L is 4 degr. 30 min. the Cause where-

of none have fufficiently explained.

A N D then, when it was 3 degr. 45 min. under the Horizon, they faw it elevated above the Horizon 30 min. viz. it's upper Limb; therefore the Refraction mrL (for we must conceive mrs to fall under the Horizon, or r L g to be 30 min.) will be 4 degr. 15 min. and r LT 90 degr. 30 min. From this may be found the Altitude of the Air L f, and the Density of the Air at Nova Zembla, which was clear at the time of Observation. And the Altitude of the Air is thereby found much greater, almost two Miles; nor will the supposition of a greater thickness in the Air help the Matter, as we shall shew in the following Proposition; because the Angle TfL cannot be greater than 85 degr. 30 min. (if nf L be 4 degr. 30 min.) tho' it will be greater if d f be supposed less than two Miles; therefore the Truth of the Observation may be justly doubted of, seeing there is no fuch Observation any where; yea the contrary hath been observed in the same Place,

fee Chap. xxvi. Prop. xiii. at the end. Besides this. there can be no Reason given why the Air, after so long absence of the Sun, should be higher than when the Sun left them after it had been prefent a long time; rather the contrary should happen, the Air being made groffer and lower by Condenfation, as some may urge that count the Height of the Air inconstant. Yet, when I consider these things more accurately, three Particulars occur to me that might confirm that Appearance and the great Refraction: for the Observation cannot be denied; confidering that the Observer understood Astronomy, and faw the Sun above the Horizon for fome Days after, when it was still under the Horizon; nor must we doubt of the Number of the Days in the long Night they had, for when they came back they counted the fame Day of the Month, as their own People did, which could not be if they had mistaken before. For if we admit such an Altitude of the Air as is inconfiftent with the Refractions in the Temperate and Torrid Zone; we must fay the Air is of the same Height every where as truly in the Torrid and Temperate, as in the Frigid Zone. But, in the Torrid and Temperate, the upper Region of the Air is fo fubtile, that it doth not cause Refraction, but only the middle Region of it; and therefore no wonder if the Refractions in the Torrid and Temperate Zones are less; for the Air that causes them is lower, which should cause the Refraction to be greater; yet it must be much more rarified than the other Air. But to this it may be objected, that the Observations of the Sailors were made in a clear Air, as themselves fay; to which I answer, that 'tis not probable that the Air was then fo fubtile as the clearest Air in the Torrid and Temperate Zone. Secondly, it may be faid that the Air of the Frigid Zone, when the Sun returns to it after a long absence, is first refined in the

the upper Region, and that the middle is fomewhat more groß, and therefore the Sun is feen by two Refractions, as the Stars are thro' Air and Glass, and a double Refraction depresseth the Star under the Horizon more than a fingle one, and fo the Altitude of the Air of one Mile, or three Quarters, will be enough. Nor can it be objected. why doth not the fame thing happen when the Sun departs from that Air, and the long Night begins; for then it is probable the Difference of the thickness of the Air is less, because of the Sun's long Continuance; or we may fay the Exhalations are more gross, in the Mornings of that Zone, after that long absence. Thirdly, if a double Refraction doth not fatisfy, and it will not be granted that the upper Region causes no Refraction, as was faid, then it must be granted that the Air in that Place of the Frigid Zone was then much higher than in our Temperate Zone, and also much groffer (for 'tis only the Altitude that lessens the Refra-Etion): but if there be a great thickness, the Refraction is much more increased thereby, than 'tis diminished by lessening the Altitude. But the first of these three Causes is best, that supposes the Altitude of the Air to be two Miles (for it cannot be less in Nova Zembla where the horizontal Refraction faid to be 4 degr. 30 min.): the other two lie under feveral Difficulties. We have faid it was the thickness of the Air that was the Cause why, the Altitude being the same, the Sun was not feen for fo many Days after it ceased to rise on the third of November; and so we must answer, that the Cause may be the same why the same Dutchmen did not, on the thirtieth of May 1596, fee the Sun in the middle of the Night, in the Latitude 69 degr. 42 min. when it was not one Degree under the Horizon. But we have faid too much of this, occasioned by the difficulty of the thing; there must

must be, for an accurate knowledge of it, most accurate Observations. Yet we must not think, that if Observations of a Star, in different Elevations, do not give the same Altitude, that therefore it hath different Altitudes, on account of the Difference of the Density of the Air, which is greater the nearer the Horizon; and therefore Obfervation will give a different Altitude, tho' it be the fame, for, in the Calculation, the Denfity, and confequently the Refraction, is accounted the same.

## PROPOSITION XXXI.

Having the Depression of a Star under the Horizon when it first begins to appear (that is, having the horizontal Refraction of a Star), to find the least possible Altitude of that Air, in which the Refraction is made; and the Groffness of that Air and the greatest Quantity possible by which it exceeds the Density of the Æther; that is, the greatest Refraction possible. Or more generally thus: Having the Refraction of a Star, at it's apparent Altitude, to find the least possible Height.

LET the horizontal Refraction be nfL, (Fig. 28.) or the Depression of the Star under the Horizong fs or g Ls, when it first begins to appear, as it was in Nova Zembla 4 degr. 30 min. 'Tis known from the Doctrine of Optics, if a Ray, as sf, touch the Air in f; that is, if the Angle Sfor or nf T be a right Angle, then the Ray is not refracted; but if the Star be under the Tangent, then no Ray can come to f directly. Therefore it is requisite the Star be above that Tangent, and that sf a or nf T be less than 90 degr. Let it then be 89 degr. 59 min. or 90 itself, provided it be no greater than from n f T. Let there be taken the Angle of horizontal Refraction 4 degr. 30 min, and there remains the Angle TIL

TfL 85 degr. 29 min. the greatest that can be; then if it be made as the Sine TfL is to the Radius, so is LT to Tf, which is the least Altitude of the Air possible. For because the Sine TfL is the greatest that can be, the fourth Proportional Tf is the least that can be, if the middle Terms, viz. the whole Sine TLf and TL, be still the same: if the Refraction of the Ray, that appears at the Horizon, be not given, but the Refraction in the Altitude x Lg, we may work the same way in the Triangle Lr T.

LIKEWISE the Proportion of the Sine of the Angle nf T 89 degr. 59 min. to the Sine Tf L 85 degr. 29 min. will be the greatest possible Proportion between the Density of the Air and that of

the Æther.

# PROPOSITION XXXII.

Having the Altitude of the Air, and one Refration in it of a Star in a certain Altitude, to find the Law of Refration, or the Proportion of the Sine of the Angle of Incidence, to the Sine of the refrated Angle; or to find the thickness of the Air by that Refration.

THE Altitude of the Air must be greater than that we found to be the least possible, otherwise the Refraction is not right taken, and the Problem is impossible. (Fig. 28.) Let it therefore be greater, suppose Tr; and also let the Refraction in the apparent Altitude x L g be mr L. Then there may be found the refracted Angle Tr L (having Tr, TL, and the Angle TLr) to which Tr L if you add mr L, you will have the Angle of Incidence mr T, and the Proportion of the Sine mr T to the Sine Lr T; which will be the Rule of refracting VOL, I.

The Absolute Part SECT. VI. in that Air, or the Proportion of the Air's Density to that of the Æther.

# PROPOSITION XXXIII.

Having the Altitude of the Air, and the Refraction of a Star in one Altitude; to find the Refraction in another Altitude.

FOR Example, let the Altitude of the Air be Tf or Tr, and the Refraction nf L at the apparent Altitude o, and the horizontal Ray is the retracted Angle. Then let there be given the apparent Altitude r Lg or x Lg, and let the Refraction be found by the preceding Proposition, or the Proportion of the Sine nf T to Tf L. Then in the Triangle Tr L, having Tr and T L, and the Angle r LT, find the Angle Tr L; and as the Sine Tf L is to the Sine Tf n. So let Tr L be to another Sine, which will be the Sine of the Angle mr T, from which take Tr L, and there remains the Refraction mr L which was fought.

THE Antients used a more intricate and also a

false Method for finding it.

## PROPOSITION XXXIV.

Having the Altitude of the Air, and the Law of Refraction; to find the Refraction at the apparent Altitude of the Star, and from thence the true Altitude.

THIS is the same with the former, where the Law of Refraction was to be found from a given Refraction in a given Height. Examples for working may be taken, from the Table laid down betore.

# Of the Reflection of Light in the Air.

# PROPOSITION XXXV.

The Rays of the Sun and Moon are not only refracted after they have entered the Atmosphere, but also reflected from the Particles of Air, or heat back as it were from a rough Mirror, because of the irregular Situation of the Particles.

FOR if otherwise, no part of the Atmosphere would be lucid, except that the Sun is above; and the Sun being in the East, the Air in the South and West would be dark; therefore as some Rays pass thro' the Atmosphere, so some are restected several Ways, from one Particle to another, and thus they make the Air lucid.

## PROPOSITION XXXVI.

Reflection of the Rays of the Sun from the Particles of Air, is the chief Cause of the Twilight, that is in the Morning and Evening.

THIS is evident from the preceding Propofition; for as the Sun being in the East, it's Rays, darted to the West, are reflected to our Eyes, and so render the West Part visible; so the Sun being under the Horizon, it's Rays shot into our Air, are reflected to our Eyes from the East in the Morning, and from the West in the Evening.

# PROPOSITION XXXVII.

The first of the Morning Twilight, that is, the enlightned Air in the East, and also the end of the Evening Twilight, begins when the Sun is about 18 degr. under the Horizon.

THIS Proposition is built on Observation; for if in the Morning, suppose about one or two o'Clock, we observe narrowly towards the East, when a little white Colour begins to appear in the Air to the East Part of the Horizon, and note the Hour and Minute, we may thence know the De-

pression of the Sun.

W E here suppose that the Air is clear, of which there being a great Difference, some have therefore thought the T wilight begun and ended at the twentieth Degree under the Horizon, others only at the fixteenth Degree; for the groffer the Air is, the Twilight is the lefs fenfible; the contrary of which we faid happened in the Refraction, which is then most sensible.

## PROPOSITION XXXVIII.

The Altitude of the Air, or the Matter that causes the Twilight, cannot be known from the Quantity of Twilight, as some have thought; nor does the beginning of the Twilight proceed from a single, but a double Reflection.

Let T L b (Fig. 29.) be the Earth, g fom the Bounds of the Air, and L the Place of the Earth in which the Twilight appears, or the Light in the horizontal Air f, and therefore f L, is the Ray reflected from the Air f, and the incident folar Ray fg S. Mathematicians, who have written of the Twilight, will 3

have

have the incident Ray in f, which makes the reflected Ray fL, to come from the Suns; and because no Ray can come to f from the Sun, while the Sun is under the Tangent fbs; therefore when the Sun comes to the Tangent fbs, for Example tos, then doth the Ray begin to come to f; and because they will have the Reflection to be from f, as from a concave Mirror, therefore Tfb must be equal to TfL; and because the Sun is found to be 18 degr. under the Horizon, nfs must be 18 degr. and Lfb 162 degr. and Tfb or TfL 81 degr. and Lfb 162 degr. from whence Tf is found 174 German Miles (as Clavius and Nonius make it) and the Air about eleven Miles: nay Albazen and Vitellio make it thirteen Miles.

SO great an Altitude of the Air is not to be allowed as difagreeing with other Phænomena, and being founded on a false Hypothesis, that the Ray g bs, which makes the reflected Ray / L, comes from the Sun itself, which is false; for it comes, by Reflection, from another Ray, for Example from the Ray gl. And that it is not necessary to make a small Light in s, that the Ray fg should come from the Sun itself, but that another Ray may serve, is proved from hence, that we see, in the western Air, some Light before the Sun rises, tho' 'tis certain no direct Ray can come from the Sun to the western Air, but from another Particle of Air, for Example from f and o; and fo the reflected Ray L m comes from the incident Ray f m which is reflected from the incident Ray gf, and again gf from another gL; which perhaps comes again from another. Secondly, 'tis worth remarking, that they have made the Reflection from the Air as from a concave Mirror; the Center of which Cavity is T the Center of the Earth, which is false; for the Rays reflect from the Air without any regard to the Center of the Earth, but to their Su-Hh 3 perficies,

perficies, as is evident from the Ray L m, which comes from the western Air to L; for if it came from m as from a Concavity, it's incident Ray should have come from the Place x, whereas it comes from o, or between f and o. Therefore the Ray L m so reslected, is from the Particle m as the Figure required. And in the Air there are Particles of very different Figures; and so no wonder if they make Reslections thro' the Air every way.

## PROPOSITION XXXIX.

Supposing the Twilight is not made by one but a double Reflection, to find from thence the Altitude of the Air, which may agree better with other Observations.

IT was faid in the last Proposition, that the Ray g b f, (Fig. 29.) which makes the first reflected Ray in the Beginning of the Twilight, does not come from the Sun itself, but that 'tis reflected in g; let therefore the incident Ray be g l (which may touch the Earth mp, and fo lg is the first Ray which can come to g) and let us now suppose it to come from the Sun itself immediately, and by Retraction to be turned a little afide; that is, let Q L be the Ray from the Sun, and let lpg be the refracted Ray, and g b s the reflected Ray, and f L the fecond reflected Ray. The Altitude of the Air Tf is to be found; and, because the incident Ray Q l refracts into glx, let us suppose the Angle of Refraction glx to be 30 min. and that the Center of the Sun is 17 degr. under the Horizon, when the Twilight begins; therefore the Limb of the Sun will be 16 degr. 45 min. under it, and fubstracting the 30 min. for the Refraction, and Angle n K x will be 16 degr. 15 min. which is the Depression of the Sun's Limb after Refraction. And because KL,

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography.

KL, Kp are equal, and also fL, gp, then Kg, K f will be equal, and the Angle K f g equal to K g f. and both together equal to g K n 16 degr. 15 min. therefore Kfg is 8 degr. 7 min. and fTL 4 degr. and TfL 80 degr. whence Tf is found to be 861 Miles and a half, and thus the Air's Altitude I Mile and a half, which is far less than was formerly made by the Twilight, and will be found much less if a threefold Reflection be made the beginning of the Twilight; which is not impossible. And this double or triple Reflection is better allowed for the Caufe of the Twilight's Continuance, than that which Kepler brings from the fplendid Matter about the Sun. You may be more of the Time of Twilight and it's various lengths, in the fecond Part of this Book.

## PROPOSITION XL.

To find the Altitude of the Clouds by the Quadrant (a).

THE Air being calm and clear, fix on fome Point in the Cloud that is remarkable, and mea-

(a) Mr Porle tells us, that a good Aftronomer, who had divers times measured the Height of the Clouds, affured him, that he could never find any that were above three quarters of a Mile high, and that few exceeded half a Mile. And Mr Crabtrie (an excellent Mathematician of the last age) upon meafuring their Height, was furprized to find them no higher, and wrote to his friend (that great Genius of the last age) Mr Horrox, about it. Who in his Letter, Nov. 23, 1637, tells him, ' I am not furprized that

' you found the Clouds fo low, because I have often found it fo. I remember that I con-' trived a way, about two or three years ago, of taking the ' Height of the Clouds wit's ' a Quadrant, all at one Station; and I never could find any, ' that were at most above a ' Mile and half high.' After wards, faith he, 'I found that ' fame method in Kepler (Aftr Cop. p. 70.) where he faith, 'The Clouds are never above ' a quarter of a German Mile high, that is one of our " English Miles. fire

Hh

fure it's Height as if it were the Top of a Steeple, at two Stations: by two Observers at the same time; and thus you may find it's Height, which is never found to be above a Quarter of a Mile.

#### PROPOSITION XLI.

To measure the Quantity of the Air, having it's Altitude given.

THIS is only to measure the Space between the Earth and the utmost Bounds of the Air, which is easily done, having the Altitude of the Air, by measuring the Solidity of the Sphere made of the Earth and Air, and then of the Earth only; and substracting the one from the other, there remains the Quantity of Air.

#### PROPOSITION XLII.

The Air of certain Places hath some peculiar Properties.

THUS in Egypt it feldom, or rather never, rains; and if small Rain sall at any Time, there sollow Diseases, as Catarrhs, Fevers, Asthmas, &c. The Inundation of the Nile, and the daily Hoar-frosts in the Morning, supply the want of Rain. And so in the Kingdom of Peru, there are never seen Rains: and in several Places under the Equator it rains for a whole half Year, and is sair the other. See Part ii. Chap. xxvi.

THE Island Pulon Timor is for the most part

covered with Mists and Hoar-frost.

IN the Island Sumatra, the Air is unwholesome, on account of the several standing Pools in it; and the like holds of several other Places, as in old Mexico, Malacca, &c.

THE

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography. 473

THE Island of St Thomas, lying under the Equator, is thought of all Countries to have the groffest unwholfomest Air, tho' it be most fruitful in every kind.

IN the Province of Chili the Air is fo very fine and subtile that the Blade of a Sword, sheathed

without wiping, will not ruft.

IN the Azores the Air and Winds are so sharp as in a short time to corrode Plates of Iron and the Tiles on the Houses, reducing them to powder.

ARISTOTLE fays, that on Mount Olympus there is not the least Motion of the Air, nor even any Air at all, for the Characters, written on the Dust there, remain as at first, after many Years; and they that go up it, cannot live there, except they carry with them wet Sponges, by the help of

which they breathe.

IN America, when the Spaniards were passing from Nicaragua to the Province of Peru, many of them, as they passed over the Tops of the Mountains, did, with their Horses, there breathe their last, or were turned into Statues with the Cold; and thus continued 'till they that escaped returned. Some think this was owing to want of Air, but that is not likely; nor what Aristotle fays of Olympus; for the contrary is found on higher Mountains, whose Tops are covered with Snow. Therefore 'tis certain these Mountains could not be above the Air, but the Air snowed upon them. See the Chap. of Mountains. Busbequius, an Eye-witness, says, that Olympus in Summer is covered with Snow.

THE Air about the Islands in the Indian Ocean is so fragrant with the smell of Spices, that Seamen perceive it (especially when the Spices are ripe) three or four Miles off, when the Wind is

against them.

THE Sea Air is more unwholfome than that on Land, and less agreeable to those that are not used to it. The Difference is very fenfible when Seamen come near the Shore; for they know when they are within a Mile of the Land, by drawing in the Land Air in breathing. This the Seamen of Soffala, on the eastern Shore of Africa, know espe-

cially. WHILST this was printing, I met with an Observation made by David Frælichius on Mount Carphathus in Hungary, which, because 'tis very useful in forming a Judgment of the Altitude of the Air, and of it's feveral Regions, I thought proper to add it here, tho' it should have come in at Prop. xviii. He fays, ' Carpathus is the chief of the 6 Mountains in Hungary, which Name is common 6 to all that Tract of the Sarmatian Mountains, which feparates the *Hungarians* from the Rushans, · Polanders, Moravians, Silefians, and those in that · Part of Austria beyond the Danube. Their high and frightful Tops that are above the Clouds appear at Cafareopolis. They are called fometimes by a Name importing that they are almost contionually covered with Snows; and by another Name that imports them to be bald and shaven as it were. And indeed the Rocks there do far exceed the Alps in Italy, Switzerland, and Tyrol, in roughness and Precipices: they are almost une paffable, and no Body goes near them but those

4 that are curious Admirers of Nature.

AND to mention this by the way; when I was a Youth, having, in June 1615, a Delire to try how high these Mountains might be, I went up with two of my School-Fellows: when I had got up to the Top of the first Rock with great Difficulty, and thought I was on the Top of all, there appeared another ragged Rock much higher; and when I had clamber'd to it, over many · large and loofe Stones, (any one whereof being thrown down would carry fome hundreds far

greater

CHAP. 19. of Universal Geography.

greater before it, with fuch a Noise, that one would think the whole Mountain were tumbling) again another higher appeared, and then fome · leffer, the latter whereof still exceeded the former ' in Height. Through all these Caverns I was oblie ged to pass, with the utmost Danger of my Life till I gained the Summit. Whenever I look'd down from the fteep Rocks into the Vales below. ' that were thick fet with large Trees, the Appearance was like that of a dark Night; or elfe of the blue and high Sky, which we fometimes fee o in fair Weather. And it appeared to me, that if I had been to fall. I should have tumbled. not to the Earth but into the Heavens. For the visible Objects, on account of the great Declivi-6 ty, appeared diminished and confused. But when I ascended to a higher Mountain, I came into thick Clouds, and having got thro' them, I did after some Hours sit down, when I was not far from the Top, and plainly observed the white Clouds, I was among, moving below; and over ' them I had a clear prospect some Miles beyond the Bounds of the Country of Sepufiam, in which the 6 Mountains were. I also saw other Clouds higher, others lower, and fome equally diffant from the Earth; from all which I gathered three things, · 1. That I had passed the beginning of the middle Region of the Air. 2. That the Distance of the 6 Clouds from the Earth is different in different · Places, according to the Vapours raised. 3. That the Distance of the lowest Clouds from the Earth, is far from being seventy two German 6 Miles, as some would have it; and is only half a German Mile. When I came to the Top of 6 the Mountain the Air was fo thin and calm 6 that I could not perceive the Motion of a Hair, f tho' there was a vehement Wind when I was on 5 the Mountains below. From whence I find that

the highest Top of Mount Carpathus rises a Geran Mile from it's lowest Root up to the highest Region of the Air, to which the Winds never e reach. I fired a Piftol on the Top, which at first made no greater Noise than if I had broke a Stick or Staff; but, after a little time, there was a murmuring for a long while, which filled the Vallies and Woods below. And coming down thro' the ancient Snows to the Vallies, I fired again, which made a dreadful Sound, as if great Guns had been fired, and I was afraid the whole Mountain should come down on me. The Sound lasted for half a Quarter of an Hour, 'till it had reached the most fecret Caverns, where the Sound being enlarged reflected back every Way; which Caverns not being above, there was at first little rebounding, but when the Sound reached those below, it rebounded violently. 6 On these high Mountains it hails or snows for the most Part, even in the middle of Summer; viz. as oft as it rains in the neighbouring Vallies below: which I have found. The Snows of different Years may be known from their Colour 6 and firm Surface.





#### CHAP, XX.

Of the Winds in general, and of the Points of the Compass.

THE Wind is a Motion of the Air; and therefore the Consideration of it belongs to the
Absolute Part of Geography; especially seeing the
Knowledge of it belongs to Hydrography, and
most of all to Navigation, which requires some
Knowledge of Geography: and tho' I willingly
allow 'tis more Physical, yet because it contains
several things, that relate to Geography we shall
speak briefly to it.

#### PROPOSITION I.

The Wind is a Commotion of the Air which may be felt, or which hath some Force.

THUS it may be defined by the Confent of all Nations: nor do I care to dispute with Critics about it. If the Motion be gentle, 'tis called a Gale or Breeze; and if it be not felt, 'tis not called a Wind; for such small Motions are constantly in the Air, tho' there is no Wind, as appears from the Sun-Beams let into a dark Chamber, thro' a small Hole, where you see the Atoms carried with the Air: and therefore we put in the Word felt in the Definition, because the Motion of the Atoms is only seen.

PRO-

# PROPOSITION II.

The Winds for the most part tend from one Point to the opposite, and drive Bodies before them.

THIS appears from the Force of Wind on our Bodies, and especially from the Vanes set on the Top-masts of Ships, which turn to the Point contrary to that the Wind comes from. Yet this is not always direct and constant, but with some Agitation to the adjacent Points. Some think there should be added in the Definition, a Commotion towards one Point, or to the same Part; but we think it may be better lest out, seeing there are some circular Winds; and, speaking accurately, no Wind exactly observes the same Point.

#### PROPOSITION III.

A Point of the Compass is an imaginary Plane, perpendicularly extended from any Point of the Earth to one of those that are on the Circumference of a Circle, having that Point for it's Center.

SUCH is the true and common Notion of a Point of the Horizon. Sometimes the Points on the Horizon, are the Things we call Points by

way of Eminence.

THE explaining of the Points of the Compass doth not belong to this Section of Geography, but to the third, of the Comparative Properties; but because the several Winds are called by them, or they by the other; therefore we here anticipate treating of them. And this is their Use, that when several Things have different Situations we determine them thereby.

# PROPOSITION IV.

The Points are infinite in number, for Planes may be drawn from all the Points on the Horizon; but only thirty two of them, have got Names, which are common to the Winds that blow from them.

THE Points, and also the Winds, are two fold as the Cardinal and Collateral; the Cardinal are North, South, East, and West. The Collateral are those between two Cardinal ones, of which there are twenty eight, there being seven in every sourth Part of the Horizon; and of these, those that are exactly in the middle between the two are the chief ones, being 45 degr. distant from the Cardinals, as N. E. S. E. S. W. N. W.

## PROPOSITION V.

These thirty two Points are equally distant from each other, viz. each from it's adjacent Point; whence there are 11 degr. of the Horizon, and 15 min, betwixt every two adjacent Points: And the Cardinal Points are 90 degr. from each other.

THERE being 360 degr. in all Circles, so on the Horizon; and thirty two Points being on the Horizon, each Point must be 11 degr. 15 min.

THIS Division, with the several Names of every Point, was made by the Germans, as most commodious; their Names are not easily expressed in other Languages: tho' their Order and Names are in the following Table.

#### N for North, S for South, E for East, and W for West.

North.	East.	South.	West.
N and by E	E and by S	S and by W	W and by N
NNE	ESE	SSW	WNW
N Eand by N	S E and by E	S W and by S	N W and by W
NE	SE	s w	NW
N E and by E	S E and by S	S W and by W	N W and by N
ENE	SSE	WSW	NNW
E and by N	Sand by E	W and by S	N and by W.

#### PROPOSITION VI.

Because there is a considerable Distance between these thirty two Points, some put a Point between every two, and make fixty four; which are observed in long Voyages.

BUT Mathematicians, finding that Division not accurate enough, made as many Points as Degrees on the Horizon, viz. three hundred and fixty, which are expressed by their Distance from the North and South; but there is not required fo nice a Division for the Wind.

Y E T the thirty two Winds might be better defigned than from the thirty two Points, from which they blow; and this would ferve in all Languages; that is, if they were called the first, second, and third, as they are in order from the one Cardinal to the other.

# PROPOSITION VII.

The Antients, both Greeks and Latins, counted few Winds, or rather they gave Names to few; nor are these few determinate, one Wind having several Names, not taken from any order, which make it bard to understand their several Points.

INDEED

CHAP. 20. of Universal Geography. 481

INDEED the Greeks had antiently but the four Cardinal Winds; nor are any more mentioned by Homer: and to these they afterwards added four; 1. That was made one where the Sun riseth at the Winter Solstice, between the South and East, called Eurus; for the East Wind itself was called Subsolanus; but Gellius calls the former Vulturnus, and the East Wind Eurus. 2. That Point in which it then sets, called Africus. 3. That where the Sun riseth in the Summer Solstice, between the East and North; and the Wind from thence was called Aquilo. 4. Where it then sets between North and West, called by the Grecians Corus.

# PROPOSITION VIII.

The Designation of the Winds by the Greeks was very incommodious for Sailors, and others; which Inconvenience they did not much find, not going far from Greece in their Navigations.

FOR in Places of different Latitudes, those Divisions they made, were not the same; yet the Greeks retained them, augmenting them with other four intermediate Winds, which they gave Names to, and so made twelve in all: tho' others among them gave other Names to some of them. The Latins added one between every two adjacent Winds; and so made twenty four. And Seneca speaks of their being observed of old by Varro to be incommodious, and therefore they were so ordered as to be made equally distant, without regard to the Place of the Sun's rising and setting at different Times of the Year. But what Seneca says, that there are no more Winds than twelve, is erroneous and ridiculous: For they are infinite.

# PROPOSITION IX.

We have explained the several Winds that have their Names from the Points they blow from, and shewn that the Divisions of the Greeks and Latins are incommodious for Navigation and Geography.

THEREFORE we retain the Division of the Moderns into thirty two Winds, equally diftant. And those are called opposite and contrary Winds that blow from the Points diametrically opposite: for we consider the Winds as coming from another Place to us; but the Points we conceive as extending from us to another Place.

#### PROPOSITION X.

The Causes of the Winds are various; for seeing the Wind is nothing but a continual Impulse of the Air, all those things that cause the one, are Causes of the other.

r. THE principal and general Cause is the Sun itself, which, by it's fiery Beams, rarifies and attenuates the Air; especially that which is just under it; and the Air rarified takes up more Room: and hence it is, that the Air thrusts forward the Air next to it; and the Sun going round from East to West, the Pressure is made westward, as appears in most Places of the Torrid Zone, and every where there on the Sea a continual East Wind blows: and the Air rarified presses westward within the Tropics. There is a Pressure indeed all round, but the Air is not admitted to other Points, the Pressure not being so great as towards the West, because the Sun moves that way, but in our Climate, 'tis so only for the most part,

part, before and after Sun rifing, when there are no other Winds that blow stronger, and overcome it. And some Places, or other Points, are more difposed to receive this Force than others; and therefore when the Air is thrust most to the North, the Wind is faid to blow from the South; and fo of other Winds. And 'tis to be observed, that when this is to any Point between the four Cardinals, then the Wind feems different in different Countries. For tho' the Point, in respect of the Place the Sun is vertical to, be but one, yet it is different in respect of other Places. And thus one and the fame Cause makes a Wind that hath different Names in different Places: if that Cause be affisted by others the Wind is strong, if hindered but weak. And oft-times another Wind blows that is helped by the general Caufe.

2. THE fecond and most frequent Cause of the Wind, are the Exhalations from Sea and Land that are raifed plentifully, and with fome Force; but they do not cause a Wind 'till they begin to ra-

rify.

3. THE Rarefaction and Attenuation of the Clouds, great or fmall, made by the Sun and other Stars, or by the fulphureous Particlesand Fire enclosed in a Place.

4. THE melting of Snow and Ice, especially that which lies on high Places: for they are not intirely melted.

5. THE Rifing, and various Situation, of the

Moon and Stars.

6. THE Condensation or Rarefaction of the Air and Vapours by Heat or Cold.

7. THE descending of Clouds that thereby

press the Air below.

THE Confideration of the Æolipile is of use, for understanding these Causes of the Wind; for the Water inclosed in it, being heated with Fire,

Ii 2 fends 484 The Absolute Part SECT. VI.

fends, out of a fmall Hole of it, a strong Steam of Vapours, like a Wind blowing, which continues 'till the Water is all exhaled. The grosser Air that surrounds serves instead of that small Hole; and sometimes 'tis strengthened by other Vapours and little Clouds behind it, and sometimes 'tis condensed, and so makes way for the Air to move to that Point.

## PROPOSITION XI.

Why the Wind may blow in a Line perpendicular to the Horizon.

THE Reason is, that the Air surrounds the Earth in a spherical Figure, and the Air is thrust about for the most part in a great Circle of the Earth; and tho' the Air may be also thrust in a transverse Line, yet because the Air doth not press so much, or resists more at the Sides, therefore the Wind blows in the middle.

W E shall understand this better if we consider the first Cause of the Winds. For the Sun thrusts the Air to all the Points of the Place that it is vertical to; but 'tis not received in all these Points, as was faid. If we then confider great Circles to be drawn from that Place, and between these, those to which the Air is forced, or in which 'tis received, all the Places of the Earth fituated in that Circle, or Semicircle, will feel the Wind coming down perpendicularly; because all great Circles that pass thro' any Place are perpendicular to the Horizon of that Place; for the same Reason, if the Wind break out from a Cloud broke, or diffolved, those Places that are situated, beyond those Circles will not feel the Wind, tho' the Air move above their Horizon; because 'tis not perpendicular, but oblique to that Horizon.

YET

CHAP. 20. of Universal Geography. 485

YET 'tis not generally true, that the Wind goes down perpendicular to the Horizon; for of-

ten it blows in the Air transversly.

THUS we may fee the Smoke that comes out of a Chimney is not carried by the Wind all one way, but a part of it goes another way.

# PROPOSITION XII.

Why the Winds blow with some Interruption, resting as it were for a Time, and on a sudden return with Force; and why on the Sca they are more constant.

THE Reason I suppose is, that the Cause of the Wind is not constant, and takes some time to gather it's Strength; and the Exhalations being more constant on the Sea, and the Motion of the Wind less hindered; therefore that Change is not fo fensible there, tho' there is some Change as to the Degrees of blowing.

#### PROPOSITION XIII.

Why no Wind blows perpendicularly from the Air or Places of the Earth.

ARISTOTLE, in his fecond Book of Meteors Chap. ix. treats very obscurely of this Question; fo that his Followers do not agree about his Opinion: nor shall I be at Pains to write their Opinions. The Cause which seems to be more intelligible is, that the Air being thrust down to the Center of the Earth cannot go that way, but is hindered by other Vapours that are forced up; and the great Resistance of the Air below causes the Force downwards, to tend sideways: which is the more probable because that which Ii3

the Wind confifts of is lighter for the most part than that Air; and also more rarified than the Air near the Earth.

# PROPOSITION XIV.

Why the East Winds are more frequent than the West.

THE Cause of this is manifest from Prop. 10, where we made the Sun the chief Cause which rarifies the Air from East to West; and therefore the Air is more preffed towards the West: and this cannot be hindered except there are a great Quantity of Exhalations or Clouds in the western Parts, which is not very frequent.

## PROPOSITION XV.

Why the North and East Winds are more strong and severe, and the South and West Winds more weak and gentle.

THE Reason is because the North Air is groffer on account of the Cold, and the South Air in our Zone is more rarified by the Sun; and the more rarified the Air is, it's Motion is the less forcible; yet the South Winds are cold, dry, and strong, in the Temperate Zone, contrary to ours, no less than the North Winds are to us. But the East Winds are fevere or more intense on another Account, viz. that they arise for the most part from the Rarefaction of the Air by the Sun, which is continually carried from East to West, and so is forced more towards the West. But 'tis likely there are other Causes which hinder or promote this Motion. The Portuguese Sailors call the North and East Wind Bryfas; but the South and West they call Sendavales.

### PROPOSITION XVI.

Why the South and West Winds are found to be hotter than the East or North, which have a much greater frigorisic Power.

THUS is the Question usually proposed; but we must know 'tis not to be understood generally of all Places, but only those in our Zone; for in the other Temperate Zone, towards the South from the Equator, the contrary holds good; for in those Places the North Winds are hot, and the South more cold, and fo the Nature of the Thing requires. For the South Wind being more hot, and the North more cold, proceeds hence that the South Winds come from Places near the Torrid Zone, and the North Winds from the Frigid Zone; but the contrary happens in Places near the Antarctic Pole; for the North Winds come to them from the Torrid Zone, and the South Winds from the Frigid. But another Account is to be given of the East and West Winds; for the different Places of the two Temperate Zones are not to be regarded here. First we faid in the preceding Proposition, that the West Winds are less frequent in all Places; the Cause of which is the same with that for which the West are found to be hotter; viz. because they blow for the most part in the Night-time after Sun set, where the Air, pressed to our Place, is hotter or less cold than the Air of our Place; as being further from the fetting Sun than the Place between us and the Sun then. There is another Caufe which also holds good in the Difference between the North and South Wind; viz. that the West Winds do not blow so strongly, but with some slowness; for 'tis known that a Gale or Breeze is the colder the more fiercely it blows; Ii s. tho?

tho' it be really in itself not colder; as our Breath (which we can make either cold or hot) shews.

# PROPOSITION XVII.

Why Seamen when they see a small black Cloud expest Wind from the Part in which it is, especially if it be of a pale and blackish Colour; and to explain other Signs of the approaching Winds.

A twofold Reason may be given; for either the Clouds of that Colour show that they are soon to be resolved and dissipated into a Wind; or the Clouds salling down by their Weight, press the Air below, which causes a Wind: of that peculiar little Cloud which the *Dutch* call the Ox-eye, see the Chap-

ter following.

WHEN the Sun appears spotted, at it's rising, and hiding itself as it were under a pale or black Cloud, it foretels Showers or Winds to come.

2. If the rising Sun seem hollow, casting it's Beams as it were from it's middle, it shews a wet or windy Season approaching.

3. If the Sun be of a pale Colour at setting, it denotes Rain; but if it be of a red Colour, it shews the next Day will be clear and calm.

4. If the Sun set pale behind black Clouds it shews there will be a North Wind soon.

5. If the Moon be red, like Gold, 'tis a sure Sign of a Wind to come, according to the common Verse

# Pallida Luna pluit, rubicunda flat, alba serenat.

6. A Halo about the Moon; 7. If the Moon's Horns be blackish, and, 8. If the North Horn of the Moon appear to be more stretched out, 'tis a Sign of a North Wind; but if the South Horn appear

fo,

fo, 'tis a Sign of a South Wind approaching. 9. The rifing of the Moon, and remarkable Stars, as Arsturus, Orion, and especially the rifing of those in Capricorn, with the Sun. 10. If the two small Stars in Cancer, called Aselli, be covered with a Cloud; if the North one, then a South Wind; but if the South one, then a North Wind. 11. The Winds do, for the most part, begin to settle in a Point, when the Rains are over. 12. A certain Noise and Murmuring; as if there were a Boiling heard in the Sea. 13. The Antients also took their Signs from living Creatures; as the Crow, the Goat, the Dolphin, &c. 14. From siery Meteors, Lightening, and opening of the Ground, and falling Stars; but not that Light seen in the Dark, or Jack with bis Lanthorn.

## PROPOSITION XVIII.

Why the Winds in Spring and Autumn blow more firongly and frequently, than in the Heat of Summer or Cold of Winter.

I fuppose 'tis so in Spring, partly because of the melting of the Snow, especially in high Places; partly because the Pores of the Earth are then open, and fend forth more Exhalations; and partly because the Air and Vapour then becomes more rare; being condensed in the Winter. Moreover, there falls much Rain a Month before the Spring, and in the Spring itself, because the moist Constellations are in those Places of the Zodiac, into which when the Sun enters the Spring begins. But the Cause of the frequent Rains, and blowing of the Winds in Harvest, is, that the Sun then draws up some Vapours; but the Heat being small, it only draws those that are grosser and pot sine enough. But in the Summer there are

few Winds, for the same Cause for which there are Rains but seldom then; viz. that the Sun does 200 much attenuate the Exhalations, and fuffers them not to go fo much together as is necessary to produce Wind. Which Cause is not indeed general, nor always true; nor is it generally true, that there are no Winds in the hot Summer, but only that it often happens fo. In a fevere Winter there are few Winds; because few Vapours are then exhaled, and those that are raised are either condenfed to Snow, or else are not so rarified or diffipated thro' the Cold, as to cause a Wind.

## PROPOSITION XIX.

In what Altitude, or in what Region, of the Air, do the Winds begin to blow?

SOME think they are not above the lower Region of the Air; because the Tops of high Mountains, as Olympus, are found to have no Wind on them. I doubt the Truth thereof, for the Smoke from the Top of Mount Ætna is feen to be toffed here and there; and therefore I think there may be fuch a Commotion of the Air in the highest Region also.

## PROPOSITION XX.

How far may one and the same Wind blow?

THERE is a great Difference in this Matter; for the Winds blowing from East to West, under the Torrid Zone, feem to go round the Earth; and those also that blow thither from the South or North use to accompany the Seamen a great way for many Days. The same seems also true of callateral Winds; but here lies the Difference, that the fame CHAP. 21. of Universal Geography. 491 fame Winds differ in different Places, as we faid under *Prop.* 10. at the end of the Explication of the first Cause.



#### CHAP. XXI.

Of the Kinds of Winds, and of Tempests.

N the preceding Chapter we gave the Divifion of the Winds, their Differences, or rather different Names, which they have from the feveral Points they feem to blow from. This Division was therefore accidental, and respecting a certain Place on the Earth, which these Points reserred to. We shall in this Chapter give other Divisions and Properties of the Winds belonging to certain Places of the Earth, or certain Times of the Year; tho' we wish we had more and exacter Observations of them. But we shall produce some that we have gathered with much Pains from the Journals of Sailors.

#### PROPOSITION I.

Some Winds are constant, others inconstant.

THE conftant are such as blow at least one

Hour, or two, from the same Point.

THE inconftant are fuch as blow one while from one Point, and another while from another, in a small Time.

THE Cause of their short continuance in one Point, and of their changing on a sudden, seems

to

to be first their proceeding from a general Cause,

or a Cause that is more or less durable.

THUS the Winds that proceed from the Motion of the Air with the Sun are constant; and those likewise that proceed from the melting of the Snow, especially in high Places. 2. There being no such Vapours in that Quarter the Wind blows from as are fit to make Wind. 3. If the Air about the Cloud, from which the Wind comes, be thicker, and hinder it's Passage; but if the Air is not thick or close together, and but a sew Vapours, here and there, in the several Quarters; or lastly, if the general Causes do not operate there, then the Wind is found to be changeable, and for the most part gentle.

## PROPOSITION II.

There is a General and Particular Wind.

THAT is called by Sailors a General Wind which blows in feveral Places at one Time, thro'a large Tract of the Earth, almost all the Year round.

AND this Wind is hindered, 1. In Places of the Sea near Land; for here they drive against the Vapours that come from other Points; and therefore 'tis in the middle of the Sea that this General Wind is observed. 2. There may also blow another Wind in the middle of the Sea, when there is a Cloud, or some other Cause in another Point, strong enough to produce Wind. From these two Causes it is that the General Winds are not so constant as they might be otherwise.

THESE General Winds are found only between the Tropics round the Earth, except in some Places where they are seven Degrees beyond the Tropics; Tropics; and they are ever from the East, or from collateral Points, as South-East and North-East, and that the whole Year round; yet not always with the same Degree of Force in all those Places, but they are hindered in some Places more, in others less. They are most constant in the Pacific Sea; viz. that Part of it which lies between the Tropics; fo that the Ships which come from the Aquapulco, a Port in New Spain in America, to the Phillippine Islands, that is, from East to West, often fail three Months without ever changing or shifting their Sails; having a constant East or North-East Wind: nor did ever any Ship yet perish in that vast Voyage of one thousand six hundred and fifty Miles. And therefore the Sailors think they may fleep there fecurely: nor is there any need of taking care of the Ship, when that General Wind carries them strait to their defired Port, the Philippine Isles; near to which indeed there are some other Winds that come against the General Wind. And thus 'tis also in failing from the Cape of Good-Hope to Brasil in America; in the middle of which Voyage lies the Isle of St Helena. to which they commonly go as they return from India to Europe, and lies about three hundred and fifty Miles from the faid Cape: which is run ofttimes in fixteen Days, and fometimes in twelve, as the General Winds are more or lefs strong; and the Seamen are as fecure when they come to the fame Parallel of Latitude with St Helena (for the Cape is beyond the South Tropic); their chiefest care is to observe that they do not pass by the Island, as 'tis very small, for if they pass it but the eighth part of a Mile, they cannot return to it for the easterly Wind. Thus they are forced to go to Brafil for fresh Water, or the other Island called Ascension with great loss of Time.

IF it be asked how they sail when they come the contrary way, i. e. from the Philippines to New Spain, or from Brasil to the Cape of Good-Hope going to India; in these Voyages the Reader must observe a threefold Artistice; for either they sail the Sea beyond the Tropics, (and thus do not go to St Helena while they go from Europe to India), or when they sail within the Tropics they do not go directly from West to East but obliquely, from the North, or a Point collateral to it, to the South, and some Point collateral to it; or lastly, they chuse those Times for failing in which they know the general Wind is often diverted: but this last seldom happens, and therefore the other two are more frequent; of which we shall say more in the Chapter of Navigation.

THERE are then two Seas under the Torrid Zone in which the general Wind, from the East and collateral Points, prevails thro' the whole Year; viz. that between South Africa and Brafil, and that between America and the Oriental Isles, of which the Philippines are a Part. And the third Part of this Sea in the Torrid Zone, viz. between South Africa and the Oriental Isles, is not without the general Wind; though 'tis often interrupted because of the many Islands there; and more in fome Places than others. This Wind blows most between Mozambique, in Africa, and India, in the Months of January, February, March, April; and in the rest of the Months other Winds blow, of which in the following Proposition: This general Wind is more hindered in the Seas among the Indian Isles. The East Winds begin to blow hard in the Month of May at the Isle of Banda, with some Rain; and at Malacca in September; and in other Places otherwise, as will be shewn in the following Proposition.

YET this general Wind does not happen alike near the Tropic in all Places, but extends itself diffeCHAP. 21. of Universal Geography.

495

rently; for the Tropics are distant from the Equator on both Sides twenty-three Degrees, and thirty Minutes; and the general Wind extends itself in one Meridian to the Latitude of twenty Degrees; in another to fifteen, in another twelve.

THUS in the *Indian* Ocean, when the East or South-East Wind blows, in the Month of January and February, 'tis not sensible 'till you come to the

fifteenth Degree of Latitude.

SO in going from Goa to the Cape of Good-Hope, they have not the general Wind 'till they come to the twelfth Degree of South Latitude; which they have to the twenty-eighth Degree of the fame Latitude.

LIKEWISE in the Sea between Africa and America, between the fourth Degree of North Latitude, and the tenth or eleventh Degree, Seamen have not observed the general Wind to blow; for when they have failed from St Helena beyond the Equator with that Wind, to the fourth Degree of North Latitude, then they have been without it 'till they came to the tenth Degree of North Latitude; from which to the thirtieth Degree the North-East Wind is found to blow constantly, tho' that thirtieth Degree is seven Degrees from the Torrid Zone; yet in the Parallel of fix, feven, or eight Degrees of Latitude, &c. it blows in some Places, but in the tenth Degree in all Places 'till they come to the thirtieth. In the fame manner beyond the Tropic of Capricorn, between the Cape of Good-Hope and Brasil, the South-East Wind blows to the thirtieth Degree thro' the whole Year.

A N D tho', as we faid, this Wind is not fensible on all Shores, and much less in the inland Parts, yet on some it is sensible enough; thus on the Shores of Brasil, and on the Shores of the Kingdom of Lowango, in Africa, the South-East Winds blow

daily,

496 The Absolute Part SECT. VI. daily, although other Winds are mixed with them.

THERE is a threefold Cause assigned by Naturalists for this General Wind (for the Antients knew nothing of it, nor of the Torrid Zone itself). Some think the Sun's moving from East to West is the Cause of it; because it rarises the Air that it goes over; which Rarisaction follows the Sun, still thrusting the Air before it.

OTHERS, viz. those who suppose the Heavens fixed, and the Earth to revolve, are of Opinion, that the General Wind comes from the Earth's moving from West to East, and the Air with it, but not so fast as we; and therefore that we go against the Air, or the Air against us, from East

to West.

A third Cause is brought by Des Cartes, which is altogether new; (Part 4. Prop. 49. of the Principles) where he endeavours to shew that the Moon causes this Motion of the Air as well as the Tides; but because the Knowledge of his Opinion requires also the Knowledge of his other Suppositions, we shall not say any thing of it here; being afterwards to shew that it cannot be so. The first Cause pleases us best; and the second seems not to be received; because several of the Copernicans do not admit it; and no Reason can be thus given why it should blow only within the Tropics, and not also beyond them (u).

PRO-

(u) Dr Halley, a Person well skilled in Meteorology, as well as in all parts of Physics, has, with extraordinary Accuracy, prosecuted the History of the Constant periodical Winds; which he deduces not only from the Observations of Seamen, but also from his own Expe-

rience. But he only takes Notice of such Winds as blow in the Ocean; there being so much inconstancy and variableness in Land-Winds, that from them a Person can make out nothing clear or certain.

First of all then, he divides the Ocean into three ample

Seas

#### PROPOSITION III.

Some Winds have a stated Time and Period, others are unfixed, and blow at uncertain Times.

THOSE are called Stated and Periodical Winds that blow at certain Times of the Year,

Seas, viz. 1. The Atlantic. 3. The Indian; and, 3. The Pacific Sea; proceeding to defcribe in order, the Windsthat generally blow in each of these.

In the Atlantic Ocean, thro' the whole Year, blows the East Wind; yet so as to turn a little South or North, according to the different Situation of Places. Of which Turnings this is the Sum.

1. Seamen near the African Shore, as foon as they have failed past the Canary Islands, about twenty eight Degrees of North Latitude, observe the Wind to blow pretty loud from South-East. This Wind continues with them in their Course fouthward 'till they come at the tenth Degr. of North Latitude, provided they be an hundred or more Leagues from the Coast of Guinea, between which Degree, and the 4th of North Latitude, there are interchangeably frequent Calms and Hurricanes.

2. They who fail to the Caribbee Islands, as they approach the Coast of America, perceive the North-East Wind more and more to retire eastward, infomuch that sometimes it is full East; sometimes also, tho' rarely, it may turn a little to the VOL. 1.

South; whose violence they obferved perpetually to abate.

3. As to the conftant Winds, they don't extend further than twenty eight Degrees North Latitude, to the Coast of Arrica, and near the Border of America they go to thirty, thirty one, or thirty two Degrees. The same is observable South of the Equator; where, near the Cape of Good-Hope, the Limits of these Winds are three or four Degrees further distant from the Equinoctial Line, than on the Coasts of Brasil.

4. From the fourth Degree of North Latitude to the abovementioned Bounds on the South Side of the Equator, the Wind is observed almost perpetually to blow from the intermediate Parts'twixt South and East, tho' for the most part 'twixt East and South-East; yet fo, as that those who sail near the Coast of Africa have the Wind turn, ing rather South, but approaching America they observe it decline so much to the eastward, that it almost blows direct East. I had Occasion. to tarry for the Space of a Year on this part of the Ocean, during which time the Changes of the Weather were

hanges of the Weather were K k fo

and cease for a set Time, and then begin to blow again; some of these are anniversary, others blow after

fo frequent, that I had sufficient Employment in observing these Matters. I found therefore the Wind almost always to possess the third or fourth Point from the East. As oft as it approached nearer the East, it blew more vehemently and raised a Storm; but when it came from the Points more southward, it was much more calm, and made the Air clear. But I never perceived a Wind blowing from East to North, or from South to West.

5. These Winds undergo fome Change, which is owing to the different Seasons of the Year. For when the Sun paffes the Equator northward a pretty way, this South-East Wind, especially in this narrow Tract of Sea between Guinea and Brafil, declines fomewhat more to the South, as the North-East does to East. And again, upon the Sun's entering the Tropic of Capricorn, the South-East Wind approaches nigher to East, as doth the North-East to North.

6. There is found a certain Tract of Sea in this Ocean, which, near the Coast of Guinea, extends for the Space of five hundred Leagues, from Mount Leo to St Thomas's Isle, wherein South, or South-West, Winds constantly blow. For the South-East Wind having once passed the Equator becomes constant, which in our fourth Observation we demonstrate the seasons.

strated to blow to the South of the Equator. About eighty or one hundred Leagues from the Coast of Guinea, it turns by degrees fouthward, and having turned that Point, it declines to Points near the West, 'till touching the very Shore, it either obtains the South-West Point, or that 'twixt it and direct West. Such kind of Winds on this Coaft are fix'd, tho' frequently interrupted with Calms and Tempests, which violently proceed from any Air. Seamenalfo, much to their lofs, fometimes find the Winds easterly; which being attended with Clouds and a grosser Air, are very unwholefome.

7.'Twixt the tenth and fourth Degrees of North Lat in that Tract which is bounded by the Meridians of Cape Verd, and the remote Islands adjacent to it, I know not if I can fay that any Wind blows either constant or variable. The Calm is almost perpetual, the Thunder and Lightening extreamly terrible, and Rains so very frequent, that from them the Tract is named rainy. If there happen any Winds they go off into Blasts, blowing with such inconstancy, that they don't continue for the Space of one Hour, without Calms; and the Ships of the fame Fleet, which are all in Sight one of another, have each of them their proper Winds. On which Account failing is fo difficult in these Places,

after they have ceased half a Year, and others return in a Month's time: and some blow once a Day.

that fometimes Ships with great difficulty fail thefe fix Degrees in whole Months.

From the three foregoing Observations two things may be explained, which Mariners experience in sailing betwixt Europe and India, or Guinea.

In the first Place, that tho' this Sea, in that Part where it is narrowest between Guinea and Brafil, extends no less than five hundred Leagues, yet with great Difficulty Ships, steering their Course southward, país this Tract, especially in the Months July and August; which arises hence, that during these Months the South-East Wind, blowing on the South of the Equator, passes it's ordinary bounds four Degrees North Latitude; and further, turns fo far South, that fometimes 'tis carried strait from that Point, fometimes also from the intermediate Points betwixt it and the West. When therefore the Course must be steered against the Wind, if that be towards the South-West Point, they have a Wind that turns more and more to East, as they retire from the Continent of Africa; but the Danger is in passing the Coast of Brafil, where Quickfands are fo frequent. But if they go towards South-East, they must of necessity come near the Coast of Guinea, from which they can't otherwise retire, than by

failing towards the East as far as St Thomas's Island.

2. What all Ships loofing from Guirea to Europe, necesfarily do for the Reason laid down in our Sixth Observation. For near the Shore blows the South-West Wind, with which they can neither fail, the land lying in the way, nor go fo against it, as to direct their Course northward to Europe. They fail then in a Course quite different from that intended, viz. either South, or to the Point next to Southeastward. Following this Course they indeed retire from the Shore, but have the Wind more and more contrary, and are obliged to steer still more to the East, 'till they make the Island of St Thomas, and the Lopefian Cape; where finding a Winddeclining from South to East, fail westerly with it 'till they come to the fourth Degree of South Latitude, where they find a South-east Wind blowing perpetually.

On Account of these constant Winds, all Mariners who sail to America, or Virginia, first steer southward, that by the Assistance of this constant East-Wind they may be carried westward. For the same Reason, they who come from those Countries for Europe, directing their Course northward, endeavour, as soon as possible, to come at the thirtieth Degree of North Latitude. For here, first, they find the Winds variable;

K k 2 yet

Day. The flated Winds are otherwise subdivided, viz. fome when they begin to blow, continue for fome

yet more frequently blowing from the South-West Points.

II. As in the Atlantic, fo in the Indian Ocean, the Winds are partly constant, and partly periodical; that is, they blow for fix Months in one Point, and the fix following in the very opposite Point. Both these Points, and the Seasons at which they turn to the opposite Sides, differ with the Places. And tho' it be matter of great difficulty to observe how the Tracts of the Sea may be defined when fubject to each periodical Wind, or Monfoons as they call them: Yet having used close Application, I don't scruple believing the following Particulars.

- 1. Betwixt ten and thirty Degrees of South Latitude thro' that Tract of Sea bounded by St Laurence's Island and New Holland, the South-East Wind blows all the Year; yet fo as to be fomewhat nearer the East than South; just as about the fame Latitude in the Atlantic Sea, we above shew'd them to be.
- 2. That South-East Wind blows, from May to November, to the fecond Degree from the Equator; in which Month of November, between the third and tenth Degrees of South Latitude, near that Meridian which passes thro' the northern Part of St Laurence's Island,

as also between the second and twelfth Degree about Sumatra and Java, arises a Wind contrary to the former, viz. the North-West, which reigns the other fix Months; viz. from November to May. This Motion of Winds is found to extend to the Molucca Islands.

3. Northward from the third Degree of South Latitude, in all the Arabian or Indian Sea, and in the Bay of Bengal, from Sumatra as far as the Shore of Africa, is observed a Motion differing from the former, breathing from the North-East Climates from October to April, which for the next fix Months rifes from the opposite, or South-West, Points. Then it breathes more violently, and brings Clouds and Rain; but upon the blowing of the North-East Wind the Heavens become ferene. But it is to be observed, that in the Bay of Bengal the Winds keep neither their Force nor their Points with the fame Constancy, as in the Indian Sea. Also the South-West Winds, near the African Shore, decline more fouthward; near India, more westward.

4. On the South of the Equator, that Tract of Sea, which lies between Africa and Laurence Island, and which goes as far as the Equator, feems to appertain to the Motion of Winds just now laid down. For in these Places the South-West Wind blows from Oslober to

Aprily

Month, and fome for a few Days.

AMONG

April, fomewhat nearer the South; but fuch as fail to the North perceive it decline towards the West, which at length coincides with the periodical South-West Wind, which they fay blows at that Seafon of the Year, from the North Side of the Equator. But what Winds during the rest of the Year, reign in that Sea, I cannot fufficiently determine: because our Sailors, in their return from India, steer their Course beyond the Island of St Laurence. This only I could learn, that the Wind for the most part comes from the eastern Points, fometimes declining to the North, and at other times to the South.

5. On the East of Sumatra, and North of the Equator, as also on the Coasts of Camboia and China, the periodical North-East Winds come nearer to North, as do the South-West Winds to South. And this is obferved to hold 'till you have gone beyond the Philippine Islands on the East, and as far as 7apan towards the North. In the Month October, or November, a northerly Gale arises; and in May a foutherly, which continues from that time during the whole Summer. But it is to be marked, that the Points of the Winds are not fo steadily fixed in these Parts, as they are in other Seas: so that fometimes the South Winds decline a Point or two towards

the East, as the northern do towards the West: which seems to take it's rise from the Bulk of the Lands, that are every where interposed in this Sea.

6. About the same Longitude on the South of the Equator, viz. in the intermediate Space between the Islands Sumatra and Java lying to the West, and New Guinea to the East, nearly the fame periodical Winds blow from the North or South; but fo that the North Winds incline to the West, and the South to the East. And these blow with the fame inconftancy and shifting of the Point, as those of the Quarter abovementioned; but the Motions begin four or fix Weeks later than in that Sea.

7. The Change of these Motions does not happen suddenly, or at once; but in some Places there are Calms, and in others changeable Winds. And often on the Shore of Cormandel, towards the end of the accidental Motion; and the two last Months there arise furious Tempests in the Chinese Sea; with the periodical Wind at South.

All Navigation in necessarily regulated according to these Winds; for if Sailors should delay the Season 'till the contrary Motion begins, they must either sail back, or go into Harbour, and wait for the return of the Trade-Wind.

Kk3 III. The

AMONG these the chief are those which Sailors find to blow, for some Months, in some Parts of the

III. The third, or Pacific Ocean, stretches nearly as far as the two former taken together; viz. one hundred and fifty Degrees, from the western Shore of America to the Philippine Isles. But as this is failed by very few besides the Spaniards, from Spain to the Manilbas, and that only once a Year; whilft they constantly take the fame Courfe; it remains in a great Meafure unknown to us; and cannot therefore be described with the fame exactness as the rest. Thus much is certain; as well from the Observations of the Spainards, as others, that the Winds which blow here have a great affinity with those in the Atlantic; for the North-East blows to the North of the Equator, and the South-West to the North of the fame, with fuch a Strength and Constancy, that the vaft extent of this Ocean may be failed in about ten Weeks, without shifting the Sails. Here also are no Tempests, so that failing is no where fo commodious, as neither Wind is wanted, nor it's Violence to be feared. Whence fome imagine, that it is as shorta Voyage thro' the Streights of Magellan to China or Japan, as by doubling the Cape of Good-Hobe.

These Trade-Winds extend not to above thirty Degrees of Latitude on both Sides of the Equator, as in the Atlantic Ocean. This appears in part from

the Course observed by the Staniards returning from the Manilhas to New Spain; for by means of the fouthern Wind, which blows in these Islands during the Summer Months, they fail to the South up to the Latitude of Japan; where they first meet with various Winds that will carry them to the East. And in part again, from the Observations of Schooten and others, who failing to India thro' the Streights of Magellan, found almost the fame Distance of the Winds on the South of the Equator. And in this also the Winds of the Pacific agree with those of the Atlantic Ocean; that near the Coast of Peru they approach to the South, as on the Coast of Angola.

That the Reader may form the better Notion, we shall add a Figure (fce Fig. 30.) representing to the Eye all the Quarters and Points of all the Winds. The Limits of each Tract are marked with pricked Lines, as well in the Atlantic, whether they feparate the variable Winds from the constant, as in the Indian Ocean, where they also separate the different Monfoons from one another. The easiest way of marking the Quarters of the Winds feemed to be by a Series of little sharp-headed Lines, pointing alternately to the Parts of the Horizon from whence the Winds blow. But as the

Pacific

Sea; and these (as also the times of their blowing) are called Monfoons; which are found chiefly

Pacific Ocean is fo extreamly large, and yet in a great meafure unknown to us; I was unwilling to exhibit the whole, to prevent enlarging the Map beyond a reasonable fize.

There arises, from the Premifes, various Questions worthy the Consideration of Philosophers: the principal are thefe. 1. Why does the Wind in the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean, continually blow from the East within thirty Degrees on both Sides the Equator? 2. Why is not the like constant Wind found beyond thefe Limits? 3. Why is the West Windfound perpetual near the Coast of Guinea? 4. Why, in the northern Part of the Indian Ocean, do the Winds for fix Months confpire with the aforefaid Winds; and for the other fix, blow from the opposite Point; whilst that part of the same Ocean which lies on the South Side of the Equator, has no other Winds but what are found in other Seas? 5. Why do the constant Winds on the North Side of the Equator incline to the North; and on the South Side to the South; 6. Why in the Chinese Sea, chiefly, is there fo remarkable an Inclination of the Winds to the North?

For the folving of these Problems, I offer the following Particulars to the Confideration of the Learned.

Wind is properly defined a Current, or Motion of the Air,

which if constant, or perpetual, must have a permanent or constant Cause. Some imagine this Caufe to be the annual Revolution of the Earth about it's own Axis. This might perhaps be allowed, if almost continual Calms were not found in the Atlantic Ocean near the Equator; and also West Winds upon the Coast of Guinea, and wettern Trade-Winds in the Indian Ocean, under the Equator. Befides, the Air being a ponderous or gravitating Body, it will acquire the fame Velocity as the Earth; and as it rolls along therewith in the annual Motion, it will feem more to do it in the diurnal; which is not above a thirtieth fo fwift as the So that fome other Cause must be sought for.

The true Caufe we judge to be the Sun continually permeating the Ocean; with the Addition of the Nature of the Soil

and adjacent Country.

For by the known Laws of of Hydrostatics, that part of the Air which is most rarified by Heat, is the lightest; and confequently the others tend towards it, 'till an aquilibrium be obtained. But as the Sun continually moves towards the West; it is manifest that the Air, most heated by it's direct Rays, must thus move the same way; and therefore the whole Mass of the lower Air. By this Means there is produced a general East Wind, which Kk4 putting

ly in the Indian Ocean, from Africa to the Philippine Isles; tho' in other Places they are not quite without

putting all the Parts of the Air, refling upon the vaft Ocean into Motion, they all keep their own Motion 'till the Sun returns; whence the East Wind

becomes perpetual.

And hence it follows, that the Wind on the North or South Side of the Equator, ought to incline towards the North or South. For as the Air near the Equator receives the Sun's Rays perpendicularly, twice every Year, and never more inclined than thirty Degrees, it must of course be greatly rarified by fo great a Heat. Near the Tropics also the Sun is vertical, for a confiderable Time; but as it is distant therefrom forty-feven Degrees for no less a time; the Air hence becomes fo cold that it cannot afterwards be brought to the same Degree of Heat, which it receives under the Line. Whence the Air, being less rarified on both Sides the Equator, flows to the middle. And this Motion being compounded with the East Wind abovementioned, explains all the Phænomena of the general Winds; which, if the Surface of the Earth was every where covered with Sea, would blow with the same constancy they do in the Atlantic and Ethiopic Oceans.

But as the Ocean is interrupted with fuch large Tracts of Land, regard must be had to the Nature of the Soil, and the

Position of high Mountains; to which two Caufes the Changes of the Wind feem principally affignable For when a Country lying near the Equator is low and fandy, the Heat of the Sun, reflected by the Sand is so great as to be almost incredible. And thus the Air of this Place being highly rarified; the denfer Parts of the Air will necessarily move thither to restore the Equilibrium. Whence I judge, that near the Coast of Guinea the Wind constantly blows to the Land; as it is exceeding probable that the inner Parts of Africa are violently heated: fince even the most northern Parts thereof, by reason of their Heat, made the Antients believe all the Parts beyond the Tropics uninhabitable.

And hence we may explain those frequent Calms; mentioned above in our fixth Observation. For as that Part of the Atlantic lies betwixt the West Winds perceived near Guinca, and the constant East Wind that blows in the Parts somewhat more to the West, the Air lying thereon giving way to neither of these contrary Winds, keeps it's Place, and makes a Calm. And the Air not able to support the Vapours here plentifully raised by the Heat, as being more light and rarified; the opposite Winds frequently cause the Rains to fall heavy.

And

without them; the observing of those times is very material, when Sailors go to the same Point,

Or

And hence it appears, that the Part of the Air rarified by Heat, being constantly compresfed on all Sides by the colder and denfer Air, that furrounds it, must be continually driven upwards, as it were like a Vapour, and be there every way equally dispersed to maintain the Æquilibrium; so that the upper Course or Motion of the Air shall be contrary the under. And thus, as it were by a circular Motion, the constant Winds that blow near the Earth, produce another Wind that blows a contrary way in the upper Regions of the Air. And this Conjecture is also in part confirmed by Experience. For when Sailors are got beyond the Limits of the Trade-Winds, they immediatly find a Wind blowing from the opposite Quar-And hence also we may eafily explain the Phænomena of periodical Winds, or the return of the Monfoons; which as it scarce admits of any other Solution, fo it confiderably confirms our Hypothesis of the circular Motion of the Air.

For supposing this circular Motion of the Winds, we must observe that the northern part of the Indian Ocean is every where interspersed with Land, running out within the Limits of the periodical Winds, viz. Arabia, Persia, India, & c. which Countries at the time the Sun is in the northern Signs of the Ecliptic, suffers the same Heat we

above mentioned of the inner Parts of Africa; but when the Sun declines to the South they enjoy a temperate Air. But this is owing to the long Ridges of Mountains whose Tops being generally covered with Snow in the Winter; this greatly cools the Air. For this Reafon the general North-Last Wind blowing in the Indian Sea is at one time of the Year hotter, and at another colder than the Wind carried circularly from the South-West; which is the hottest of these contrary Winds; when it blows thro' the upper Region of the Air; it follows that the under Course of the Air one while moves from the North-East, another from the South-West; from the later in the Summer, and from the former in Winter; as we obferved in explaining the Phænomena of the Trade-Winds.

From the same Cause it seems to proceed, that the North-West Wind succeeds the South-East in a certain Tract of the Indian Ocean, lying without the Equinoctial, at the time that the Sun approaches the Tropic of Capricorn.

But here we must not conceal, that there is a great difficulty in explaining the Reason why in the same Latitude of the *Indian* Ocean these Winds are found, there is a perpetual East Wind in the Atlantic without any Variation at all.

or one collateral to the Point they blow to; nor can they return 'till those Winds blow the contrary way, which in a certain time they will do and continue to blow fo long the other way. Tho' they do not immediately begin to blow the other way, when they have done blowing the former way; but after some Days more, or less, in which the Winds are unfettled; and the Sailor fometimes furprized with Calms; and the Sea-Waves move feveral Ways; yea, and frequent Storms arife. Some of the Monsoons return twice in a Year, but not with the same Vehemence.

1. IN that part of the Atlantic Ocean which lies in the Torrid Zone, and that also in the Temperate, the North Wind blows frequently in the Months of October, November, and January; and these Months are the best times to go from Europe to India, that they may get beyond the Equator with the help of them; for it hath been found, that fome Ships that had gone from Europe in March have not come fooner to Brafil than those that left it in October; coming both to it in the Month of February; being helped by the North Winds. But because this Wind is not so constant and certain, Seamen do not reckon it among the Monfoons. Nor is it eafy to give the cause of that Wind in these Months; except we refer them to the great quantity of thick Vapours at that time, or the constant pressure then made by the heavy Clouds. And they that wintered in Nova Zembla fay, there was a conftant North Wind all the Winter; which could not be by a Rarefaction of the Air made by the Sun, which was under the Horizon.

It is also very difficult to explain why the Limits of the constant Winds scarce reach bevond thirty Degrees of Latirude; as also why Monsoons

are found only in the northern part of the Indian Ocean; whilst in the South part the North-East Wind perpetually reigns. think

CHAP. 21. of Universal Geography.

think it may be maintained in the general, that most of these Monsoons come from the melting of the Snow, or the dissolution of the Clouds in the North and South Places, especially the Mountains which I am apt to believe, because these Monsoons blow, for the most part, from the North or South, or the Points collateral; and because the Snow and Clouds in the northern Parts are dissolved by the Sun; especially in that half Year it goes thro' the North part of the Ecliptic, the Monsoons are then from the North, and in the other half from the South.

THE Cause of these Monsoons in the Sea, blowing mostly from collateral Points, as South-East, North-East, or those next them, seems to be from the different Situation of the Places in which the Snow and thick Clouds are; or from the general Wind which may divert them to another Point: for that Wind blowing to the West, and the Monfoons tending North and South, they must hinder one another; and thus go in a Point between the Cardinals. But the South-West and North-West Monfoons are rare and weak, and are fcarce to be reckoned Monfoons, when the North and South Winds feem fometimes by accident to decline to the West, but are drawn to the East by the general Winds. There are required for giving the Causes of the great variety of the Monfoons in different Places, more accurate Observations, not of one Year only, but of feveral Years; with the Times of the Winter, Rains, Snows, and of the Mountains in those Places from which the stated Winds blow. We should also know the Motion and Age of the Moon; which may cause a Change in this Matter.

2. IN the Month of July, and some Months near it, the South Winds blow at Cape Verd in Asrica (when there is a Winter of Rain there) which

feems to be from the fame Caufe that makes the North Winds blow in Winter, in our Zone.

3. A T the Cape of Good-Hope the North-East

Wind blows in September.

- 4. AT Patanen (which is a Kingdom and a Town of the same Name in India, beyond the Mountains of the Gate) there are constant Rains, and a North-East Wind that blows; but in the other Months an East Wind blows thro', and 'tis Summer then.
  - 5. ABOUT Sumatra the Change of the Mon-

foons is in November and December.

- 6. IN the Island of del Mayo, one of the falt Isles in the Azores, there blows a vehement Wind in the end of August from the South, with much Rain, which moistens the Land, that is naturally dry, and then the Grass begins to spring up; which fattens a great many Goats there, against the end of December.
- 7. IN the Kingdom of Congo in Africa, from the middle of March to September; when the Winter reigns there, the North, West, and North-West Winds blow, or others intermedite, which force the Clouds together on the Tops of the Mountains, and cause a dark Air with Rain (see the next Proposition): but from September to March the Winds are contrary, being South, East, and South-East, and others intermediate. We have taken these differences of the anniversary and stated Winds from the Observations of Sailors, who call them Monfoons when they blow for a great way on the Sea. We would now treat of their Causes; but we want to know the Mountains, Snows, and the Times of their diffolving, and other things; nor are the Observations of Sailors so exact as to deferve an accurate Enquiry into their Causes.

THE Monsoons that are most famous are; 1. Those in the Indian Ocean, between Africa and India; and at the Molucca Isles they begin in January, and blow to the West fix Months to the beginning of June; and in September and August it begins to blow to the East; and in June, July, and August, there is a Change of the Monsoons and raging Storms from the North. But when we speak of Winds blowing to the East or West, we understand all the collateral Points.

2. BUT at the Shores, the eastern Monsoon varies much; fo that only from January to the end of March or the middle of May, the Ships that go to Persia, Arabia, Mecca, and Africa, only fail when they come from India on this Side the Gate, or the Shore of Malabar; for the Storms rage in the end of May, and all June, July, and August, with a North Wind often, or a raging North-East Wind; therefore no Ships go from India on this Side the Gate in these Months. But on the Shore of India, beyond the Gate, or the East Shore, or the Shore of Cormandel, they know nothing of these Storms. They fail in the Month of September from Ceylon and Java, and other Isles there to the Molucca Isles; for then the West Monfoons begin, that hinder the general East Wind: but when they come to the fifteenth Degree of South Latitude, from the Equator, the western Monsoon is sensible in the Indian Ocean, and a general South-East Wind fills the Sails.

3. FROM Cochin to Malacca, i. e. from West to East, they begin to sail in March; for then the West Monsoons begin there, or rather the North-

West Wind blows often.

4. IN the Kingdom of Guzarat, i. e. in India on this Side of the Gate, the North-West Winds blow the half of the Year from March to September, and the other half Year the South Winds, and that without much hindrance by other Winds.

5. THE Dutch fail from Java, for the most Part, in the Months of January and February, when they return to Europe; they fail then with an East Wind to the eighteenth Degree of South Latitude. Here the South Wind begins, or the South-East

with which they fail to St Helena.

6. THO' in the Indian Ocean, from January to June, the Monfoons are East, and from August to January West; yet, in several Parts, when you are to sail from one Place to another, there are some set times that are counted best; because the collateral Winds blow more or less at those times, or other Winds do more or less mix themselves with these. Therefore they take one Monfoon when they are to sail from Cochin to Malacca; and another when they are to go from Malacca to Maccou, a Port-Town in China; and another when from Maccou to Japan.

7. AT the Isle of Banda the western Winds cease at the end of March; and at the end of April the Winds are variable, and become calm on a sudden; and in May the vehement East

Winds begin, with Rain.

8. AT the Isle of Ceylon, near the Cape of Ponto-Gallo, on the fourteenth of March there is first a western Wind, then a constant South-West from the end of March to the first of Oslober; then the North-East Wind begins, and blows to the middle of March: but sometimes the Monsoons come sooner or later by ten Days or more.

9. IN the Voyage from Mozambique, in Africa, to Goa, in India, the South Winds rule all the way to the Equator, in the Month of May and June, but from the Equator to Goa the South and South-West Winds prevail in the Months of July and

August, and the following Months.

10. I N the thirty-fifth Degree of the Elevation of the Meridian that passes thro', Tristan de Conha,

CHAP. 21. of Universal Geography. 511 Conba, the West Wind rages in the Month of

May, at New-Moon.

11. IN two Degrees thirty Minutes North Latitude, the South Wind prevails on the Sea feventy Miles from Guinea, from the twenty-fith of April to the fifth of May (but not on the Shore, or Guinea itself); and after the fifth of May the same Wind is felt at three, and three Degrees and thirty Minutes Latitude.

12. A T the Isle of Madagascar the North and North-West Winds prevail from the fifteenth of April to the last of May; but in February and March the Winds blow from East and South.

13. FROM Madagascar to the Cape of Good-Hope, both thro' Sea and Land, the North Wind and the Collateral to the East, blow continually in the Months of March and April; so that 'tis counted a wonder if a South or South-East Wind should blow then for two Days.

14. THE South Wind is vehement in the Bay of Bengal after the twentieth of April; and after that the South-West and North Winds are

strong.

r5. THE South and South-West Winds, and oftentimes the South-East, serve for failing from Malacca to Maccou, in the Months of July, October, November, and December; but in June, and the beginning of July the West Winds rage about Malacca in the Sea of China.

16. THE Wind by which they sail from Java to China, i. e. from West to East, begins with the

Month of May.

17. THE Wind by which they fail from China to Japan, i. e. from West to East, prevails in the Months of June and July; which is a South-West Wind; tho' oftentimes there comes in a North Wind, and others collateral to it eastward; and that chiefly in the Day-time: but in the Night there

there comes in a South-East Wind, and South by East.

18. BUT when they fail from Japan to Maccou, i. e. from East to West, in February and March, there is an East and North-East Wind; but these do not prevail on the Sea, but at the Shores of China; which they that fail from Japan find in their Voyage.

19. WHEN they fail from the Philippines, or China, to Aquapulco, a Port in New Spain, there is a West Wind in June, July, and August; tho' very weak, except at Full Moon; but they are mostly South-West Winds. But they keep from the Torrid Zone near the northern Shores of America to shun the general East Wind, tho' 'tis but weak then; for 'tis to be known in general, that the western Winds are more weak than the eastern, because the former are hindered, and the latter promoted by the general Wind.

20. IN the Sea of China the South and South-West Monsoon is in July, August, and Ostober; but these Winds turn to the East: for they never turn immediately to the South, but first they blow some Days to the East, and then to the South; tho' the North-East Wind is sometimes changed, on a sudden, to the South-West, and sometimes from the North to the South immediately, which is very

common here.

THUS the more conftant anniversary Winds are found at Sea; both those that are less constant, and those also that are anniversary, as well on the Shore as Places near the Shores.

#### PROPOSITION IV.

The Etesian or anniversary Winds in Greece, proceed from the Rains and Snows melted on the Mountains.

THE Grecians observed two Kinds of stated Winds each Year, which they called Etesia; 1. The Summer,

CHAP. 21. of Universal Geography. 513

Summer, or Dog-winds, which were called Etefia in general; because they were more strong and senfible. 2. The Winter-Winds, which they called Chelidonian or Ornithian.

THE Etesian Dog-winds are from the North, Writers differ about the time of their beginning. Aristotle, having told us they blow after the Summer Solftice, adds nothing of the exact time; which was a great neglect: and the more because when he spoke of the Ornithia he omitted both the time and the part they came from. Moreover, they who have marked the time of these Etesia, have made their forerunners, which is about eight Days sooner, to begin when the Dog-star riseth, on the sixth, or fifteenth of July; and to continue forty of the Dog-days, and fo end with August: tho' others extend them to the middle of September. They blow only in the Day-time: nor do they come early in the Morning; which made the Seamen call them delicate and lazy.

THE Cause of these Winds is no doubt the melting of the Snow on the northern Mountains, by the Heat of the Sun, which is then at the greatest; having for feveral Months shone on those Mountains, without fetting. And with this Cause it agrees well that they cease at Night; because then the melting ceases, or is smaller than to make a Wind, the Sun being then near or under the Horizon.

THIS fame northerly Dog-wind, not only in Greece, but also in Thracia, Macedonia, the Ægean Sea, and it's Isles, (which I know are fomerimes all included in the Name of Greece) yea, in Egypt alfo, and Africa, and probably the same that we faid in the former Propositions, did blow in the Kingdom of Congo, beyond the Equator, between March and September; we say the same Dog-wind, Sc. are the same with the Étesiæ of the Grecians, or come from the same Cause. And likewise that

VOL. I. L. 1 North North Wind which we faid blows in the kingdom of Guzarat, from March to September, proceeds from the melted Snow on the Mountains of Asia; which they called the Sarmatian Mountains, and the Earth's Belt; and therefore we reckoned it among the Monsoons.

THE fecond anniversary Wind of the Grecians, is the Chelidonian, or the Bird's Wind; which they tell us began after the Winter: but they do not tell us the Day when it began. These are South Winds contrary to the Dog-winds, very weak, and likewise inconstant, and of less Duration; which makes the Sea pleasant, and signifies the coming of the Winter Birds, which they call Chelidons. Aristotle says they blow by turns to the middle of Summer, 'till the easterly Winds, or Dog-winds, from the North, begin, but very weakly.

THEIR Cause is also the melting of the Snow on the Mountains of the Moon in Monomotapa, which are called snowy by the Portuguese: which Snow the Sun melts and rarifies the Air thereby; because 'tis Summer there, when 'tis Winter with us and in Greece; the Sun then being in the South part of the Ecliptic. And this Wind is also found in the Kingdom of Congo, in Egypt, and in the Agean Sea; and the like in Guzarat, but for many more Months: for it begins in Congo and

Guzarat in September, and blows 'till March.

IT was the yearly Wind among the Grecians; which they called Ornithias, or the Bird-Wind; and they faid it continued after the vernal Equinox, while the Sun was mounting to our Zenith.

### PROPOSITION V.

Why these Etesian Winds do not blow in Italy, Germany, Prussia, and other kingdoms, since they are nearer the Mountains in the North, from which the Etesian Winds of the Grecians blow, as we said.

THIS Question hath no small difficulty in it; and I could wish to have more accurate Observations on this Head, to determine what Winds then blow in the several Places; or if they return again each Year; for I remember to have read, that in Aquitania, a part of France, there is an anniversary Wind.

B U T if any thing be faid to this Question, these Particulars seem proper; 1. In our Dog-Days the North Wind blows, which cannot be denied. 2. 'T is not so constant, nor doth it return every Year; perhaps it may not be felt, because of the frequent blowings of other Winds. 3. It might be said; the Mountain whereon the Snow begins sirst to melt, is situated directly towards Greece; and therefore the first Dog-Wind is carried thither; and the Vapours from the Snow on the rest of the Mountain is carried thither; because they then find an open Passage that way: but these extemporary Thoughts I shall lay aside, so soon as I find better from better Observations.

### PROPOSITION VI.

Some Winds are proper, and almost perpetual, to some Place or Trass of the Earth, others inconstant.

THERE are few Places where a Wind blows always; the principal are these: viz. 1. Places under the Torrid Zone, especially the Parts of the Pacific and Ethiopic Sea in that Zone have a perpetual Wind from the East, or some collateral Point, which we called, Prop. 11, a general Wind. And this Wind is not so much to be termed proper as common, or belonging to many Places; for 'tis by accident that 'tis not felt in all Places; viz. because other Winds blow more strongly. The Cause of it is given in the forecited Place.

2. ON the Shores of the Kingdom of *Peru* and Parts of *Chili*, and the adjacent Places on the Sea,

L12 the

the Wind is almost perpetually South, or in some collateral Point to the West. It begins at the forty fixth Degree of Latitude, and blows to Panama at the American Ishmus, and makes the Ships (loaded with Gold and Silver) come from Lima to Panama, in a few Days; tho' it takes a great many Days to return: but in Places remote from the Sea this Wind doth not blow. 'Tis hard to give the cause of this Wind; because the South-Land, from which it feems to blow, is not yet known to us; yet I suppose there are found therein Mountains continually covered with Snow, from the constant meltings whereof these Winds blow. But I would not here preposses the Reader's Judgment with my Conjectures. Perhaps the Snows that are found at the Streights of Magellan, all the Year, are the Caufe of this Wind. But yet thefe Mountains lie from the South eastward, and the Winds blow from a Point declining from the South westward. Let us then leave this 'till we have a better knowledge of the South Continent.

3. AT the Shores of the Magellanic Land, or del Fuogo, about the Streights of La Maire, there blow almost constant West Winds strongly; so that the Trees decline from a perpendicular to the East. Nor is there any Place where these West Winds blow fo much. But on the other Side of the Streights of La Maire, the South Wind blows on the Shores of the South Land. I can give no other reason for it than the melting of the Snow, and the breaking of the Clouds in the South Land; which extends itself on the West Side of that Streight, from South to North. These Things are doubtful,

and to be more diligently enquired into.

4. ON the Shore of Malabar, in India, the North and North-West Wind blows almost the whole Year. The Cause is the melting of Snow on the Mountains of Sarmatia, in Afia, as those CHAP. 21. of Universal Geography.

of Imaus, Caucasus, or from the Clouds on other Mountains in Asia that press the Air below.

5. ON the Sea, near Guinea, the North-West Wind blows frequently; but further off the North-

East Wind blows.

6. HALF way between Japan and Liampo, a Sea-Port Town in China, the West Winds blow all the way to Japan; these blow there in November and December.

7. AT the Island Guoton, not far from the Island dos Cavallos, the South Wind is frequent on the Chinese Sea; whilst on the adjacent Seas the North Wind rages.

### PROPOSITION VII.

Those Winds that blow for some Hours every Day, in some Places, at a certain Time of the Year, belong to the periodical or stated Winds.

THEY are found to be twofold; but only in fome Places near the Sea. Some blow from the inland Parts to the Sea; others again from the Sea to the Land: the former is called a Land-Wind, the

latter a Sea-Wind.

1. ON the Malabar Shore in the Summer-time, from September to April, the Land-Winds blow from twelve at Night to twelve at. Noon, which are East Winds; nor are they sensible beyond ten Miles on the Sea; and from twelve at Day to twelve at Night the Sea-Wind blows from the West, but fo weakly that Ships have little Benefit from it. The former East Winds I suppose come partly from the general Wind, and partly from the Clouds on the Mountains of the Gate: but the Cause of the latter is the diffolving of the Clouds by the western Sun; which Clouds were forced together by the East Winds. These are my Conjectures; but in other Months the North Wind rages there, as also

L 1 3

the

the East, North-East; nor are the gentle Land and Sea-Winds fenfible there, for the frequent Storms.

2. AT the Town of Masulipatan, on the Shore of Coromandel, the Land-Winds begin to blow on the first Day of June; they last only fourteen Days, and then it is the Ships go from thence, But these are rather to be referred to the Monfoons; for fo far as I understand from Sailors Accounts, the Land-Winds are constant on those Days; nor do the Sea-Winds come after them.

3. ON the American Shore of New-Spain the Land-Winds blow to the Pacific Sea at twelve at

Night; but the Sea-Winds in the Day.

4. IN the Kingdom of Congo, and the Provinces of Lopo Consalvo, the Land-Winds blow from the Evening to the Morning, when the Sea-Winds begin to blow and mitigate the Heat of the Day.

5. AS to the East Winds which blow before and at Sun-rising, every Day, in all Places, especially at Sea, when other Winds blow not, particularly in Brasil where they blow every Day in the Morning; the Cause is plain: for either they are a Part of the general Wind, or else the Sun rarifies the gross Particles of the Air that were condensed by Night.

6. THE Etesian Winds of the Grecians, or their Chelidonian Winds, come among these Quo-

tidian Winds.

7. O N the Shore of Cambaya à Varella, at Pulo-Catte, the Land and Sea-Breezes fucceed one another daily, from the twenty-eighth of July to the fourth of August; for then the Monsoons cease, and there is a perfect Calm for a while. The Land Breezes are from the West and North-West. But the Sea-Breezes are from the East, and the collateral Points which turn to the North; and then turn back to the South; when 'tis calm' till the Land-Breezes come, which are not felt on the Sea above two Miles from the Shore. These Land and Sea-Breezes are also found at *Havanna* in *America*.

## PROPOSITION VIII.

The nearer we come to the Equator from the Arzic Pole, the northern Winds are the weaker; and beyond the Equator the South Winds are strong, and cold and dry, especially in Chili and Peru.

THE Cause of both is the same: because they come from the northern and southern Places: yet there are sound South Winds in the northern, and North Winds in the southern Parts.

#### PROPOSITION IX.

It appears from what hath been said, that there are four different kinds of Winds.

1. THE Common, which blow in all Places, and all times; except hindered by others, as the General one.

2. THE Proper, or fuch as blow at all times, but only in a certain Place or Tract of the Earth.

3. THOSE which blow in feveral Places, but not at all Times, as the *Monfoons*, or *Quatidian* Winds.

4. THOSE which blow neither at all Times, nor in very many Places.

# PROPOSITION X.

Some Winds are sudden, and strong, but do not last long; such are Hurricanes, with, and without Lightening; Whirlwinds, Storms from the Water, and from the Air. These are in some Places anniversary: and some are only frequent in certain Places at Sea.

THE Wind called *Prester*; is a strong Wind that breaks out with Lightening and Flame. Such L14 seldom

520 The Absolute Part SECT. VI.

<sup>1</sup>eldom happen, and scarce without the *Ecnephia*; Seneca calls *Prester* a Whirlwind with Lightening.

THE Ecnephia is a strong and sudden Wind that breaks out from some Cloud; which is frequent in the Ethiopic Sea, between Brasil and South Africa; especially at the Cape of Good-Hope, and on the other Side of Africa, at Terra de Natal, and at Guinea, under the Equator. The Portuguese call them Travados, the Latins Procella, but the Greek Word Ecnephia is best: they are most frequent in certain Places, and in certain Months of the Year.

A little Cloud, and fometimes several of them black or blackish, are plainly seen by Sailors to go together, and increase even in a clear Sky, before the Wind breaks out; and when they first see them, they should gather in their Sails, and prepare their Ship against the raging Wind that is at hand; but before the Portuguese knew this Prognostic of Wind they lost several Ships, being the first that had sailed the Ethiopic Ocean. For when India was made known by Gamma, the King of Portugal sent a greater Fleet of Ships, of large Bottoms, to the Number of thirteen, under Caprali in the Year 1500; which was the first Fleet sent to Brasil, with great Joy to the Portuguese.

WHEN they had waited there the Month of April, they failed in May towards the Cape of Good-Hope, with raging Storms; and tho' they faw the Signs thereof, yet they knew not the Tempest that was to follow; which Maffeus thus describes.

" THEY made a long Run of almost two hundred Leagues from *Brafil* towards the Cape (which is about one thousand *German* Miles) the

Ocean and Winds all the while raging. Having

entered that Voyage in May, with more Bold-

e ness than Success, a fiery Comet appeared continually to the tenth Day, with a fearful Aspect;

and the Sea and Heavens often changing; the

black:

CHAP. 21. of Universal Geography. 521

6 black and foul Clouds having gathered together ' in the North into a round Form, and the Wind 6 feeming to come all against them as it were by Reflexion: the Sea being faint in deceitful Calms. ' The Sailors not knowing the Tempests that used to rage there, spread their Sails to gather the ' Wind; when on a fudden the Wind broke out from the Clouds in the North on four Ships whose Tackling was not in order to be handed, ' and overfet them in a Moment; and tho' the rest were looking on, yet not one of a great many could be faved from death, except a few that 6 had Oars or broken Pieces of Sails thrown to The North Wind continuing, the Sea rose sometimes high as it were to the Stars; and ' again fell low to the Bottom; the Sea looked black in the Day-time, and fiery in the Night, ' which Storm held them twenty Days.' So far Maffeus.

THE Cape of Good-Hope is disastrous for such

Storms from the Clouds.

NOT far from the Shore there is a high Mountain, broad on the Top like a Table, from which great Storms often proceed; and this prognosticates strangely. For when the Sky is clear, and the Sea smooth, there is a little Cloud seen on the Top of the Hill, which appears at first no larger than a Hazel Nut, and then like a Walnut which the Dutch call the Ox-eye; and then covers the whole Plain above, and the Dutch compare it to a Table spread with all kinds of Meat on it: then the Storms begin to blow from the Top of the Mountain with fuch Force that overwhelms all Ships that are not on their Guard, or have their Sails out; but Sailors are now more wary, and when they fee the Ox-eye, they run immediately from the Shore as much as they can, and gather in their Sails, and do what is proper to defend

thend their Ships: nor does this Sign ever fail. The like Storm rages at Terra de Natal, having the Ox-eye there also; and by it several Ships have been lost; and likewise in the whole Tract between that and the Cape of Good-Hope. There is also in Dauphine in France, not far from Vienne, a high Mountain, on whose Top there is a Lake, from which all the Storms thereabouts arise; on the Top of it there is a little Cloud or Exhalation, which

portends Thunder and Rain.

ON the Sea under the Equator, between America and Africa, and near the Equator; there are frequently fuch Storms; especially in those Months in which there are few or no constant Winds blowing; and that almost thro' the whole Year, especially in April, May, and June, (in other Months, tis more rare) and they are very remarkable on the Shores of Guinea. They break forth three or four times in a Day, and cease on a sudden, varying ordinarily every half Hour; but they are most vehement at first. They break out from the black and filthy Clouds that appear when the Sky is clear and the Sea calm, by which the Seamen know they are approaching. And with their help it is that Sailors get beyond the Equator; for other constant Winds are often wanting, especially in those three Months, for they do not hinder the Ships failing except at the first breaking out.

BUT in that part of the Sea which is next the Kingdom of Loango, in Africa, the Storm is often in the Months of January, February, March, April, and in different Places of Africa at other times.

THUS likewise at a Promontory in Africa, called now Guardasu, not far from the Mouth of the Red-Sea, there rages in the Month of May every Year a North Wind, and the Ecnephias most vehemently.

FOR 'tis observable, that as some Winds less forcible blow yearly; so there are Storms and Tem-

pests anniversary in some Places: and with such a Storm, not far from that Cape, did Sodreus, the Portuguese Consul, perish in the Year 1505; and tho' he was admonished by the Africans, yet he would not hearken to it.

BUT in the Entrance of the Arabian Gulph, and in Arabia, and Ethiopia, there is a peculiar and wonderful Storm happens. A thick black Cloud, mixed with fiery little Clouds (which are terrible to behold), brings Darkness in the Day, and on a sudden there breaks out a Storm, which is foon over; but it throws fuch a quantity of red Sand on the Land and Sea, that the Arabians say it sometimes buries whole Companies of Merchants and Travellers, with their Carnels, viz. the Caravans that pass there once or twice a Year, being gathered (out of all parts of Asia) in Syria, they arrive thence from Aleppo to Arabia, to the Number of fix thousand Men, who dare not travel by themselves, because of the Robberies by the Arabians, and other Dangers, as they do from India to China and Tartary: and from hence 'tis they fay the Arabian and Egyptian Mummy comes; their Bodies being dried in the Sand with the Sun's Heat. This Storm comes from the North to which the Red-Sea is extended; and therefore 'tis likely, there being a great quantity of red Sand on that Shore, that 'tis carried up by the Wind, which causes a red Colour to appear among the Clouds, and afterwards falls down.

AND 'tis also probable, that there is such a Storm of Sand in Libya, because of the great Heaps of that Sand there; which the Antients knew when they wrote of the difficult access to the Temple of Jupiter Hammon in Libya: nor were they without the knowledge of the way how Mummy was made. In Guzarat, a Kingdom in India, Clouds of Sand, or a vast quantity of small Dust raised by the Sun's

Heat.

Heat, doth often oppress Travellers; as is written

by Twist a Dutchman, who lived long there.

A S to the Caufe of thefe Storms, 'tis plain they come from the Clouds, and may be formed two ways. 1. If a Cloud falls down, by it's Weight it will move the Air under it, as a Sheet, or Sail, let fall; and hence 'tisthe fmaller the Cloud appears the Storm after it is the greater; for the Cloud, or Oxeye, is then high, and appears fmall, and falling down, moves the Air with greater force. 2. If fulphureous Spirits inclosed in the Cloud, break out on a fudden in one Place, other Parts being shut as the Wind breaks out of a Bottle, when the Liquor in it is heated; but the first Cause seems the truer.

### PROPOSITION XI.

Exhydrias is a Wind that breaks out of a Cloud with a great quantity of Water.

THIS differs but little from an Ecnephias; only the Cloud, from which it feems to break out, is now condenfed to Water, and born up so long by the Clouds about it, and perhaps forced together by the Winds, 'till at last it falls down, and beats the Air below it, which causes the Wind: but these are rare, and the Ecnephias itself hath often Showers attending it, and therefore the Difference is only in Degree; except that the Exbydrias for the most part comes strait down.

#### PROPOSITION XII.

A Typhon is a strong swift Wind that blows from all Points, wandring about all quarters, and generally comes from above.

THIS is frequent in the Oriental Sea, especially in the Sea at Siam, China, and Japan, and between Ma-.acca and Japan. It breaks out violently almost from

the western Point, and turning round the Horizon with a rapid Force performs the Revolution in twenty Hours; still growing stronger and stronger; raising those Seas with it's strong whirling about, to a great Height, every tenth Wave rifing above the rest, which dashing against one another with great force, the Seamen lofe all hopes of their Lives; for which, and other Storms, failing from India to Japan is very dangerous; fo that if one Ship of three get safe there, 'tis counted to be a prosperous Voyage. The Typhon rages most in Summer, and more than can be conceived by those who have not seen it; so that 'tis no wonder the Ribs of the strongest and largest Ships should be loofened: you would think the Heavens and Earth were turned to their antient Chaos.

IT rages not only at Sea, but on Land, and overturns Houses, and pulls up Trees by the Roots, and carries great Ships a quarter of a Mile from the Sea.

IT feldom lasts above fix Hours. In the Indian Ocean the Sea is at first plain: but there come afterwards dreadful Waves. Thus about the Town of Arbeil in Persia, in the Months of June and July, it raises a great deal of Dust every Day at twelve of the Clock; and lasts one Hour.

THE Cause of it, no doubt, is that the Wind rushing to a certain Point, is obstructed, and returns on it felf, and is thus turned round, as we fee in Water that turns round about in a Vortex, when it meets with an Obstacle; or it may come from furious Winds meeting one another, which renders the Sea plain, and dashes against the Ships between them. If this Wind blow from above, 'tis called Catagis.

#### PROPOSITION XIII.

Whether some Winds came from the Earth, either from the Land or Water.

WE think this is very eafy to conceive; for feeing there are in the Earth, and at the Sea Bottom, fe-

veral Cavities; there may be in them fulphureous Spirits, which may break out violently, especially if a little hindered at first: and if much hindered this causes an Earthquake, 'till at last they make way for themselves. Thus in the Maurice Isles there often breaks out a Smoak from the Earth; and also from some Caverns. In Japan there is a Fountain that breaks out at certain Hours of the Day, with great Force and Noise.

BUT I do not remember to have read of any

Wind coming out of the Sea.

### PROPOSITION XIV.

Whether any Wind arises from the Tides, or the flowing of Rivers.

EXPERIENCE testifies, that in those Places where the Tides are sensible, when the Sea flows, the Wind doth for the most part blow from the Sea, when other Winds cease; and therefore it seems the Air that is contiguous to the Water flows with it to the fame Point: but 'tis to be considered, whether that happens constantly. And I believe there may be another cause given of that Wind, viz. That the Air is driven from it's Place by the Water that flows in on the Land: for a small matter moves the Air; and thus 'tis thought the Air moves with the Rivers that run swiftly, as the Zaire and Rhine.

#### PROPOSITION XV.

Why the fiery Appearances Castor, Pollux, and Helena, and what they call Jack in the Lantern, appear amidst Storms.

NOT one, but a great many, are feen on the Masts of Ships, wandring with an uncertain Motion, tho' they feem fometimes to cleave close to the Sails and Masts; but they frequently leap up and down, with intermission, affording an obscure Flame, like CHAP. 21. of Universal Geography.

that of a Candle burning faintly. If five of them are feen together, which the Portuguese call the Virgin Mary's Crown, they take it for a sure Sign of the Storm being soon over. Their Cause is some sulphureous and bituminous Matter beat down by the Motion of the Air above, and gathering together is kindled by the Agitation of the Air; as Butter is gather'd together by the Agitation of the Cream. And from this Appearance we gather, that these Storms come from sulphureous Spirits that rarify the Air, and put it into a Motion.

# PROPOSITION XVI.

Why Calms are so frequent in the Sea near Guinea, and under the Equator, in the Atlantic Ocean between America and Africa.

THIS is a Phænomenon concerning the Winds. of no small difficulty; that at Guinea, which is two Degrees from the Equator, and under the Equator itself, there should be almost a constant Calm, especially in April, May, and June, where there are no Monsoons, and when the like is not found in other Places fituated under the Equator. There is indeed an Ecnephias pretty frequent there fometimes: and is defired by Seamen, because by the help thereof they get beyond the Equator: for fometimes going from Europe to India, they are kept a whole Month under the Equator: but they take care to keep from the Coast of Guinea; and without loss of time fail towards the Coast of Brazil, to avoid being becalmed; which hath kept fome Ships three Months near the Shore. I have not yet found the reason of it, except it may be faid, that there is no Snow found on the Mountains of Africa, between Guinea and Barbary; which may cause a constant Wind.

# PROPOSITION XVII.

In some Countries the Storms are anniversary.

WE gave Examples of this before, viz. 1. Concerning the changing of the Monsoons. 2. Of the Ecnephias. 3. Of the Typhon. 4. At the Cape of Good-Hope, in June and July. 5. In the Island of Del Mayo at the latter end of August; to which add, 6. The Storms at Tercera, in August. 7. In thirty five Degrees of the Meridian of Tristan de Cunha And in the Month of May, at New-Moon, the West Wind rages, and swallows up Ships; but in thirty three Degrees on the same Meridian the North and North-East. 8. At Pulon Timor, in the Chinese Sea the West Winds rage in June and July, and are dangerous. 9. Between China and Fatan there are several Storms from the New Moon in July, to the twelfth Day of the Moon. 10. If, in the same Place, other Winds besides the Monfoons blow fometimes from one Point, and fomerimes from another, 'till they fettle in the North-East, a Storm certainly happens.

The End of the First Volume.





#### University of California SOUTHERN REGIONAL LIBRARY FACILITY Return this material to the library from which it was borrowed.

REC D LO JRD

OL JAN 21 1991 JUL 24 1991

AC MAY 1 2000

DEC 1-5212







